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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME XXXI

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We Will Be Ready

OSCAR H. EDINGER, JR.

A look at any daily newspaper in the country will forcibly call to your attention several problems, not the least of which is that of our colleges and universities. "Education stands at the crossroads," "Quality and quantity in higher education," "More students will be enrolled in colleges in the '60's than were enrolled in high schools in the '30's," and on, and on. Science and technology have advanced so rapidly that what was a great break-through last year is now made obsolete by a new development today.

In the past 50 years, colleges and universities have moved from the limited goals of preparing a few people for a few professions to the full responsibility of preparing the trained manpower needed in hundreds of occupations, ranging from the technical and semi-professional worker, with two years of college, to the professional worker with many years of graduate and post-doctoral education. From this we cannot help but recognize the enormity of the task and, as junior and community colleges, identify and accept our responsibilities in this great task.

We readily accept our part in this, in

what appears to many of us to be the time of greatest opportunity to serve that has ever existed. Our two-year institutions have advanced from educational obscurity to a place of prominence that no segment in higher education has ever been called upon to accept.

The junior and community colleges accept this challenge with confidence that this unique institution, while it cannot be all things to all people, can be what it is in its own environment consistent with its philosophy and objectives.

Those of us who are charged with the responsibility of guiding and directing an institution through this decade must keep uppermost in our minds the total responsibility to the area served by our college, public or private. We must continue to expand to meet increasing enrollments but not sacrifice quality for quantity. We must counsel and guide students into areas where their chances of success are greatest and finally, through both curricular and extra-curricular activities, insure that our graduates will be educated in the broad general culture that is necessary for participation in our democracy.

I am sure that everyone will join with us as we endeavor to meet this challenge and recognize that no one segment of education can be all things to all men. Each

institution, however, must, in its own way, do the very best that it can to insure an opportunity for higher education for all who are qualified.

The Developmental Reading Course and Junior College Objectives

MARY F. MAINS and CHARLES C. COLLINS

THE SMALL junior college in California has been faced with this developing controversy: According to the state educational code any high school graduate or any person over 18 years who can profit from instruction may attend junior college. School boards, administrators, instructors, in direct proportion to their liberal turn of mind, give support to this policy of equality of opportunity. Nevertheless, there are various pressures to move toward selectivity.

For the uninitiated, what follows is the gist of the argument minus its sound and fury. An editorial in *The San Francisco Chronicle* for April 19, 1959, on the burgeoning college enrollments stated: "Junior colleges admit any high school graduate. If the legislature should tighten up the requirements these students must meet to remain in school, that would make room for some of the oncoming enrollment."

The instructor of the traditional transfer course argues that there is no point in

enrolling students in his class who are not "college calibre," while in the technical or vocational course the instructor insists that his course should not be a depository for the low ability student and points out that the old distinction between "transfer" and "terminal" is blurred to non-existence—typing is transferable for the secretarial major and auto-mechanics is transferable for the industrial arts major.

The college statistician increases the difficulty of solution by selectivity by asking what instrument is going to be used to make the selection. At Coalinga College the correlation coefficient between the A.C.E. academic aptitude test and the grade-point average earned was found to be .38. Taxpaying parents would be favorably impressed with a policy of selection of the fittest except in those cases where their children were classified as unfit for junior college training.

The unreconstructed progressive, who perhaps has not kept pace with the space-age necessity for concentration on the intellectually elite, argues doggedly that there is little merit in eliminating students, that the aim of the junior college should be to train all comers to their maximum capacity. He also wonders (aloud) what happens politically and culturally in a society where the educational gap between the common man and his leaders

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has become too great. The governing boards of most small junior colleges would be quick to point out that if selectivity means financing a junior college for the apt and a junior-junior college for the less apt, then the money for such expensive small classes would simply not be available.

Coalinga College has not arrived at any final resolution to this debate but at a pragmatic level has established some related policies, acted upon them and is now in the process of checking their validity. One such policy that will be of focus in this article might be phrased as follows: If a college accepts unselected students for a curriculum that is primarily transfer in approach and in standards, then in justice it is obliged to try to equip the student with those basic tools such as reading, writing, listening and arithmetic skills without which he has little chance to succeed. Focusing still closer, the concern for the moment will be the reading program given emphasis at Coalinga College during the 1958-1959 academic year.

In the annual survey of student characteristics, it was found that the mean scaled score on the Reading Comprehension Section of the Cooperative English Test was 47.7 for Coalinga College freshmen as opposed to 55.1 for National Junior College Freshman Norms. As a matter of fact, half the freshmen fell below the 31 percentile by national standards, and it was agreed that this would be the point below which all full-time freshmen would be obliged to enroll in English 80A, the developmental course in reading. There were 109 students enrolled in six sections of this course: five of the six sections, representing an end-of-semester enrollment of 87 students (72 first semester

freshmen and 15 continuing students), were instructed by the co-author, and it is this group that will be considered here. While most of these students are continuing through a second semester of English 80B, it was decided to base the findings on one semester's work to see if a single semester of remediation were sufficient.

METHOD OF APPROACH

Teaching retarded readers at the college level is similar to teaching reading at any level. The primary consideration involves the skills of thinking that need to be developed. Inevitably, when a student becomes aware that a thinking, analytical process is going on continuously during reading, a new awareness affects all of his reading. And at this point difficulty with concentration is largely overcome because his mental powers are engaged; he is thinking his way through a communication from the author to him.

Unlike the academically inclined student, the retarded reader is usually meagerly equipped with techniques of conceptualization. Having read little he is basically handicapped, for successful reading is a function of deriving accurate meaning from abstract symbols. The retarded reader does not know how or where to begin because he has never developed the skills involved in attacking a reading problem. Therefore, the aim at Coalinga College was to organize a course that would help students build reliable concepts and develop the related technical skills basic to intelligent reading.

The course began with the inculcation of the idea that each person has a right to develop to his full potential. A study of personal data, test records from the A.C.E. Psychological Examination and

COOP English Test, plus scores achieved on the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Advanced Form, yielded a many-faceted picture of deficiency within this group—deficiency of most reading skills basic to college success. It was evident that the course had to be adaptable to a considerable range of ability and achievement and had to embrace those assimilative and critical reading skills possible of achievement among these young adults who had either loafed their way through high school or, failing previous English courses, had given up the unequal struggle. The factor most predictive of success was the attitude of the student. A combination of eagerness, humility and self-admission of reading deficiency characterized the more successful cases. This was the initial built-in motivation, the gem so essential to learning yet so often the evasive objective of fruitless search.

Since it seemed that discussion would be an effective medium of instruction, a book which would insure group activity and discussion on a common level and serve as a vehicle for teaching reading as a thinking process was chosen as the basal text: *Developmental Reading* by Guiler and Raeth. Supplementary materials included *Reading for Meaning*, Books 10, 11, 12 by Guiler and Coleman, McCall-Crabbe's *Practical Exercises in Reading, Book E*, *Improving Reading Ability* by Ammons, Bamman and Stroud, *Toward Reading Comprehension* by Sherbourne, and a few copies of Lyle Miller's *Increasing Reading Efficiency*.

The basic text provided the core of the course: the search for meaning, practice in phrase-reading, fluency, word-attack, vocabulary enlightenment, work-study skills and, as awareness grew, the critical

reading skills without which college success is impossible. How to draw conclusions, identify inferred meanings, generalize, skim rapidly, scan for detail, analyze constructional clues for additional information, use contextual clues, put subheads and topic sentences to work, employ glossaries and examine word-usage for shades of meaning began to be a fascinating enterprise because of the tangible rewards. Many students reported they were using their mental powers beyond any previous effort.

They found that the ability to analyze ideas and to make judgments which yielded the correct solution began to assist them in other courses. Textbook study became somewhat less frustrating. The greatest immediate gains, summarized in student terms, were an expanded knowledge of word meanings, the ability to read in ideas and the growth in ability to concentrate. Thorough discussion of each lesson exposed flaws in the students' extraction of meaning which had led them to illogical conclusions. These flaws would be caught by other students; hence, class-wide participation characterized each meeting.

As skills were strengthened, those who began to master the art of "reading to find out" became intolerant of thoughtless answers based on snap judgment. "Refer me," they would require. "Back it up." And if the reference did not prove the point a student might say, "Now you listen while I read exactly what it does say." The exhilaration of achievement finally was becoming a prize. Well-prepared homework became the rule, and the lively class discussions which ensued revealed sustained interest.

An understanding of the function of

prepositions and of prefixes, roots and suffixes comprised part of the course. How a syllable affixed to a word could alter the form and indicate the part of speech was often welcome information.

The sentence idea was taught by presenting model paragraphs for location of topic sentences or for re-phrasing into a single well constructed paragraph. The results gave insight regarding emotional attitudes as well as an opportunity to evaluate mechanical skills. Greater salvaging is, of course, possible if the instructor becomes aware of emotional blocks.

In a drive toward increasing spelling proficiency, a list of the 300 most difficult words published by the National Council of Teachers of English was used. The students soon realized what a valuable tool the dictionary is, and many of them purchased personal copies.

Outside reading was constantly encouraged. It is impossible, of course, to overrate its importance in enlarging perspective and concept. A motivating force was provided by an evening division course in the humanities taught simultaneously on the campus. Steinbeck's novels comprised the reading for this film lecture series. Several developmental reading students enrolled, and many who did not enroll read the books. Some students had their first real awareness of social problems and found their expanding perspective a captivating experience. The course champion who, on his own admission, had never previously read a book, completed ten the first quarter. He began with Kipling's *The Jungle Book* and finished with Huxley's *Brave New World*. *The Jungle Book* was recommended as a fine example of style, plot and characterization describing communal living. Geared to an easy level

of readability, it is an excellent beginning book for such a group.

Neither a drive for speed nor the use of any machine characterized the course. Speed increased steadily as students' mechanics improved and they gained ability to adjust the rate to the item. As additional impetus to improvement, four hours per week of no-credit reading workshop were available by arrangement. These hours were used advantageously with groups of from three to six students for concentration on the particular skills requiring development.

The methods of approach by the instructor have been described, but it should be added that to some extent these varied from class to class and even from student to student and were supplemented by student innovations in method. The students pooled their ideas and used any device or approach that sounded promising.

EVALUATION

The quantitative evaluation in this study took three different forms. The instructors considered these questions:

What was the attrition rate of this easily discouraged group?

How did they fare in terms of grade-point average earned?

What end-of-semester gains did they show on standardized tests of reading skill?

During the fall semester before Coalinga College instituted the emphasis program in reading, the attrition rate for the total freshman class was 19 per cent. The following year it dropped to 11 per cent. Nine of the 81 freshmen who initially enrolled in the five sections under study withdrew during the semester. This represents 11 per cent of the group, whereas the

remaining group of freshmen who entered college with higher aptitude, better preparation, and better tools also sustained an 11 per cent drop.

The reading development group of 87 students had a mean A.C.E. Psychological Examination score of 69.9. The mean for the total freshman class was 85.5. Although there is a slight difference between men and women in computing percentile, the mean score for the reading group represents a percentile rank of approximately 18. Carrying an average of 14.1 units (the overall college average was 13.4 units) they earned a straight 2.0 G.P.A. Five of them made the college honor roll by earning a *B* average or better. Only 15 of the group, all first semester freshmen, put themselves in jeopardy by falling below the 1.5 probation mark. This represents 21 per cent of the 72 freshmen in the five reading sections who completed English 80A. Twenty-two of the remaining 94 first semester freshmen students, or 23 per cent, also distinguished themselves in a negative way by being put on the probation list. Thus it can be seen that the casualty rate among those with lower academic aptitude and less skill in

reading was slightly lower than among those who were better equipped.

The initial selection of students for English 80A was made by means of the Reading Comprehension section of the Cooperative English Test. This test was repeated at the end of the semester, and the pre- and post-test results are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1
*Comparison of Pre- and Post-Training Results
Using the Reading Comprehension Section
of the COOP English Test*

	September Testing	January Testing
Number	81	81
Range of Scores	34 to 48	34 to 55
Mean Score	40.7	43.0
Standard Deviation	8.7	13.9

The net gain recorded on this particular test was found to be small, but it is interesting to note the increase in range and the widening of the standard deviation. For those who argue for some arbitrary cutting point below which students would be eliminated from enrollment in college or at least enrollment in certain courses, Table 2 gives rather effective rebuttal.

TABLE 2
*Instances of Unusual Growth in Reading Skill as Registered by the Reading
Comprehension Section of the COOP English Test*

Pre-Training Percentile Rank	Post-Training Percentile Rank	Pre-Training Percentile Rank	Post-Training Percentile Rank
1	15	11	29
2	18	11	51
3	22	13	36
3	25	13	39
3	25	15	43
4	43	18	43
5	29	22	51
7	25	25	43
7	32	30	51

Some potential for ultimate contribution would have been lost if these students had been denied a means by which to salvage themselves.

The semester gain registered by pre- and post-testing with the Advanced Form of the Iowa Silent Reading Test was considerably more encouraging than with the COOP English Test. Reported first in terms of raw score, the results are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Comparison of Pre- and Post-Training Results Using the Advanced Form of the Iowa Silent Reading Test

	September Testing	January Testing
Number	80	80
Range of Scores	129 to 183	129 to 191
Mean Score	158.5	166.9
Standard Deviation	16.4	20.7

This average growth (difference of means) from the ninth (9.6) to the eleventh (11.4) grade level of reading skill was found to be significant at the .01 test of confidence. In the September testing only 12 of the 80 students given this test achieved at the 12th grade level or above.

TABLE 4

Comparison by Pre- and Post-Training Gains by Grade Level Using the Iowa Silent Reading Test

	September Testing	January Testing
Number	80	80
Range of Grade Level	5.2 to 14.2	5.3 to 17.7
Mean Grade Level	9.6	11.4
Standard Deviation	2.2	2.6

In January, 29 of the same students were above this level of reading skill. By reverse token, 31 were below 8th grade skill in September, and only 15 remained in this position by January. Some dramatic gains were also found between pre- and post-testing with the Iowa Silent Reading Test.

Since the reliability coefficient of this reading test is reported at .91, it seems reasonable to conclude that in some instances remarkable gains in reading skill can be achieved through even one semester of training. If such progress can occur with some students, there is hope that with advancements in teaching skills and attitudinal approaches it can occur with others and perhaps even with most students.

TABLE 5

Instances of Unusual Growth in Reading Skill as Registered by the Iowa Silent Reading Test

Pre-Training Percentile Rank	Post-Training Percentile Rank	Pre-Training Percentile Rank	Post-Training Percentile Rank
2	16	12	45
4	34	13	46
7	30	20	50
7	39	26	54
8	46	34	67
9	34	39	73
11	37	---	---

If the junior college were to adopt what the critics of present admission regulations like to call a "tough-minded" policy, i.e., that students with reading problems do not belong in college and an elimination point should be the 30th percentile, who would be served by this action?

1. The community? Obviously not, for the community and the wider society need as many reading, thinking, self-respecting, trained citizens as can be mustered.

2. The students? It is apparent that the students involved in this study would have lost a last chance for a little boost to help them get ahead. And if any gain from a policy of elimination did accrue to the better endowed student, would it have compensated for the loss of those eliminated?

3. The college? Systematic elimination would naturally produce a higher per cent of transfer students and would undoubtedly reduce the grade point differential between grades earned at the junior college and those earned at the universities. (At Coalinga College there is no grade differential in the case of transfers to the state colleges). It would also make instruction easier, but this would be at the expense of eliminating a large segment of students, a consequent reduction of staff and, in large measure, would take away the junior college's very reason for being. If Coalinga College were serving only the university transfer student, or even uni-

versity plus state college transfer, it would cost less to lock the doors and pay the tuition and living costs of the 18-20 per cent who actually transfer.

This short-term, small scale study gives some encouragement to the value of remediation for the poorly prepared high school graduate. It is interesting to speculate what the effect would be on this group if similar emphasis were also given to the development of other tool subjects, such as arithmetic and speech, and if the students were specifically trained in listening skills so that their ears could be altered to pick up what their eyes might miss. If there were selectivity for, and emphasis upon, the skill or tool subject, then perhaps there would be little need or justification for segregation by ability level in all other subjects.

But shouldn't this all be accomplished before the students leave high school, or perhaps even before they enter it? Who can say "no" to this question? The point is, however, that "shoulds" are hypothetical and building policy on them is like building on sand. Junior colleges must face the conditions that exist. If the time should arrive when all junior college students are equipped with minimum reading skills, the instructors in developmental reading will be delighted to concentrate their training and experience on changing the adjective from minimum to maximum and on making the good reader into an excellent reader as well as the poor reader into an adequate reader.

Official External Controls Over the Curriculums in Private Junior Colleges

C. C. COLVERT

BECAUSE OF THE concern in recent years with the seemingly increased external official controls over the curriculums of the private and public junior colleges, the Curriculum and Administrative Commissions of the American Association of Junior Colleges asked the writer to make a study of this problem. This report deals with private junior colleges, and a subsequent article will present the findings concerning the public junior colleges.

Information was received from 136 private or independent (non-public) junior colleges. According to types of sponsors these colleges were divided as follows: non-sectarian, 51; Roman Catholic, 21; Methodist, 20; Baptist, 18; Lutheran, 6; Presbyterian, 5; Latter Day Saints, Disciples of Christ, Mennonite, and Y.M.C.A., 2 each; and Pilgrim of Holiness, Episcopal, Assembly of God, Friends, Congregational Christians, and Latter Day Saints Reformed, 1 each.

External official control of colleges and universities in the United States began with the establishment of institutions of higher education; that is, the authority to operate the colleges and to set policy was placed in the hands of a board of control responsible to the constituency which es-

tablished and supported the colleges, and this is as it should be. The purpose of this study was not on such general controls but on the external official controls over the curriculums by groups such as: boards of control, bodies which support the colleges, state departments of education, legislatures, and state and regional accrediting agencies.

It is interesting to note the variety of sizes of the boards of control of these 136 private junior colleges which participated in the study. The median size of the boards was 16, the lower quartile was 8; the upper quartile was 25, and the range was from 2 to 50.

The boards of control in the non-sectarian colleges are usually self-perpetuating or membership by co-optation. Thirty-one of the 51 boards of this group were entirely self-perpetuating; the remaining 21 varied as to board selection. Four of the 21 boards required appointment or election of a small number of the board members by the alumni of the institution. A few boards had a definite term of office for members; some are appointed for life, and some require a member to stay off the board for at least one year before he is eligible for reappointment. A few boards have some members composed of *ex-officio* members, that is, by virtue of holding some other office.

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The 21 junior colleges controlled by the Roman Catholic Church usually have boards of control which are elected by the particular body which established the college. In some cases the president of the college is elected by the body, and he in turn selects the board members. Sometimes these selected board members are members of the faculty. In other cases the board members are appointed by a Higher Superior of the Church Body. One of the boards was self-perpetuating.

The 20 junior colleges of the Methodist Church usually have their boards of control elected by the membership at the annual conference upon the recommendation of a nominating committee. Five of the 20 boards are self-perpetuating, but three must have the approval of the conference for the new members. The members of three of the boards are elected by organizations of the Church, such as the National Board of Missions and the Women's Divisions of Christian Service or Board of Missions.

The Baptist denomination generally elects, at its state convention or association meeting, members to the board of the 18 junior colleges which reported. The board of one Baptist junior college is self-perpetuating, and for one college the convention nominates two persons for each board vacancy and the board elects from this number.

The boards of the six Lutheran junior colleges are all elected by the supporting church body. In one of the junior colleges that has a 14-member board, 12 are elected by the church body, one is appointed by the consistory of the Synod and one is president *ex-officio*.

In the five Presbyterian junior colleges, two of the boards are elected by the

Synod, two are elected by a Board of Missions, and one board of 36 members had 20 appointed by the Synod and 16 by the board.

The remaining 15 of the 136 private junior colleges were divided among 11 different denominations ranging from one to two colleges each. Most of these colleges secured their boards by nomination and subsequent election by the church body. One board, however, is composed of members who are *ex-officio* by virtue of other offices held in the church organization. Another board is elected by the student body of the college.

Approximately one-half of the 51 non-sectarian junior colleges reported there were no courses required by any official external agency; the remaining junior colleges reported no unusual required subjects. Most of such courses were those required by state agencies, such as the state legislature, the state board of education and involve state teacher certification requirements for certain degrees and teacher certification. In only five colleges did the boards of control specify any particular course or group of courses. One board specified a course in religion; one specified six semester hours of English; one, some courses in general education; and two, miscellaneous courses.

None of the above mentioned colleges reported the required exclusion of any courses by the sponsoring body or the board of control. One college dropped a course on "History of Comparative Religions" because of "many different denominations in the college." As might be expected, most of the denominational colleges were required by their sponsoring churches to teach courses in religion and/or Bible.

In the junior colleges sponsored by the Roman Catholic Church, there were the usual required courses in religion: two to 12 semester hours of religion with a median of four semester hours. The other outside requirements concerned the usual requirements by official state agencies and accrediting agencies.

The only exclusion of courses reported by the above colleges had to do with sex education, birth control, and communism, and the sole restriction concerning these was that they be taught strictly in accordance with Christian principles. A few courses had been dropped, most of which were the result of changes in degree requirements or other academic changes.

In the 20 Methodist controlled junior colleges, 12 listed no required courses in religion or Bible; the other eight had a median requirement of six semester hours of Bible with a range of two to nine semester hours. There was no record to indicate that any courses were officially excluded by any official external body.

Of the 18 Baptist controlled junior colleges, 11 reported no courses that were required by either their boards of control or the denomination. The other seven had a requirement of from three to 15 semester hours of Bible, with a median of six. Exclusion of courses by anyone in the official external authority was not indicated here.

The curriculum of the six Lutheran colleges is prepared and controlled by the Board for Higher Education through the local board of control. In most cases it seems that the faculty of each college through the local board has an important voice in curriculum preparation.

Of the four colleges reporting courses

in Bible or religion, two reported eight semester hours; one, five; and one, 14 hours. No courses were listed as having been excluded from the curriculum.

Four of the five Presbyterian junior colleges required six semester hours of Bible or religion, and the fifth course required 12 semester hours. The sponsoring group rather than the board of control required the above courses. None of these colleges listed any courses as having been excluded from the curriculum nor any which had been dropped from the curriculum because of action by official external bodies.

Of the other 15 junior colleges controlled by 11 different religious bodies or private organizations, nine had no requirements whatever in Bible or other courses in religion. One each required three, six and eight semester hours respectively, and two required 12 hours. These courses were required mostly by the sponsoring group. One other college reported that certain courses were required for graduation by the sponsoring organization, but the courses were not listed.

One of the above 15 colleges reported that six semester hours of government and six hours of political science were required in the curriculum by the legislature. No other courses were listed by any of these colleges as being required by outside official bodies other than for teacher certification. One college did list communism as banned by the sponsoring group and the local board of control.

The administrative officers in each of the 136 private junior colleges were asked if in their opinion more controls or less controls would be helpful to the college program. Regarding more controls, 86.7 per cent of the administrators indicated that this would not be helpful, 2.8 per

cent reported more would be helpful and 10.5 per cent had no opinion on the question. On the other hand, 43.5 per cent reported that less controls would not be helpful, 15.8 per cent thought less controls would be helpful, while 40.7 per cent expressed no opinion. The group therefore felt that more controls were not needed nor were less controls desirable.

The question was also asked if the external controls by the curriculum encroached upon the professional prerogative of the educator or if they strengthened or reinforced the educator in his objectives. Forty-three and six-tenths per cent thought that external controls of the curriculum did encroach upon the educator's prerogative, 44.6 per cent thought that they did not, and 11.8 per cent had no opinion. There were 40.4 per cent who thought that such controls strengthened the educator, 33.3 per cent thought they did not, while 26.3 per cent expressed no opinion.

In answer to the request to list and explain the good and bad features of external controls of the curriculum, 46 of the 136 junior colleges gave expression to the effect that there were several good features which came from official external controls, while the other 90 junior colleges gave no opinion. Sixteen colleges gave opinions that there existed some bad features of such controls; the other 120 colleges expressed no opinion.

Two good features of official external controls were most often mentioned. One was that state and regional accrediting agencies did much to improve colleges as to faculty, curriculum, instructional facilities, buildings, and the like. Such agencies supported the administrator in his efforts to improve the college. The

other most frequently mentioned feature was that the board of control kept the objectives of the college and constituency constantly before the administration and faculty.

Also prominently mentioned was that accrediting agencies facilitated both the transfer and quality of credits. Further, they stimulated the faculties and provided excellent guideposts to curriculum development. It was thought that state and regional accrediting agencies kept before the colleges the best thinking and research of professional educators who are sensitive to curriculum needs.

In four states the legislature passed statutes which require physical education and health courses, and/or courses in government as well as history. While one college thought this was a bad practice, others who expressed any opinion thought it was good.

As previously stated, only 16 of the colleges mentioned any features of external controls which they thought were bad. The chief one mentioned was that the board of control, the sponsoring group, and accrediting agency could be too restrictive in their control. The major complaint was that there might be too much interference with experimentation in courses, classes, and other phases of curriculum development. Of the two institutions that held this opinion, one reported that a specialized curriculum which was to have been initiated was finally dropped because of too much interference and dictation on the part of the state agency.

Two colleges mentioned that external controls made little, if any, provisions for able students, and another stated that most agencies emphasized too much the minimum requirements. One college

thought that the university exerted too much influence on the university parallel courses in the junior college. In one instance the college indicated that curriculum controls by non-professional groups could possibly produce inferior results. One school pointed out the danger that required religious courses could become perfunctory, and another mentioned that required Bible was resented by some students. Finally, one college mentioned that in some external bodies there was too much anxiety on the part of older members to retain and overemphasize cultural heritages and customs—even to the detriment of desirable modifications of certain practices.

To summarize, the median size of boards of control for the 136 private junior colleges was eight members, and the range was from two to 50. Most boards were elected except those of the non-sectarian colleges of which approximately half were self-perpetuating boards.

Bible and/or courses in religion were required by many of the boards or, more often, by the sponsoring body which operated the college. Six to eight semester hours of credit were usually required in such courses. Very few other courses were required by the board or sponsoring bodies. Even fewer controls were mentioned by the administrators of the non-sectarian colleges.

For the most part the other controls over the curriculums were those of state

departments of education and legislatures which related to required courses for teacher certification or required courses in government and history. Few colleges expressed any concern over these requirements, and almost all of them thought they were proper. There was almost no exclusion of courses by boards or other external agencies from the curriculums of the private junior colleges. The colleges were high in their praise of the influence which state and regional accrediting agencies had over them with regard to the curriculum, instruction, teachers, buildings, etc.

Most of the administrators of these private junior colleges felt that more controls over the curriculum would not be helpful and at the same time, to a lesser degree, felt that fewer controls would not be helpful either. They seemed to be satisfied with the status quo. However, the administrators were about evenly divided in their opinion as to whether or not external controls of the curriculum encroach upon the prerogative of the educator in such matters but were slightly more decided that such controls did strengthen the position of the administrators and faculty members with regard to the curriculum. In general, the administrators who expressed opinions seemed to feel that the good features of the official external controls far outweighed the bad features of such controls.

Goals for the Nineteen-Sixties: The Significance of the New A.L.A. Standards for Junior College Libraries

FELIX E. HIRSCH

THIRTY YEARS have passed since the Junior College Round Table of the American Library Association adopted a resolution suggesting a set of minimum requirements for junior college libraries. Included were some proposals, sound in themselves, which are still waiting for their fulfillment today, such as the demand for a minimum staff of two professional librarians. Many other efforts to raise the standards for junior college libraries followed; among them is Ermine Stone's pioneering volume on *The Junior College Library* (A.L.A., 1932) which deserves special praise for its wealth of ideas. This is not the place to review the complex history of all these noble endeavors. Suffice it to say that the Junior College Libraries Section of the Association of College and Research Libraries (A.C.R.L.), a division of the American Library Association, adopted a set of standards, after long negotiations, in 1956. This document was turned over to the A.C.R.L. Committee on Standards in

June, 1959, because the A.C.R.L. Board of Directors felt the need for a reexamination. Also it was deemed desirable to have these standards run parallel to the A.L.A. Standards for College Libraries which had been prepared by the same committee and had then just been published.

The A.C.R.L. Committee on Standards, which is composed of men and women from all types of academic library work, began immediately to work on its new assignment. At this time several leaders among the junior college librarians were added who shouldered a major share of the responsibility: Ruth E. Scarbrough (Centenary College for Women), Orlin C. Spicer (Morton Junior College) and Norman E. Tanis (Henry Ford Community College), with Lottie M. Skidmore (Joliet Junior College) acting in an advisory capacity. Many other junior college librarians from all parts of the country were consulted in regard to various crucial points. The committee was also able to use the most recent nationwide statistics of junior college libraries prior to their publication. These figures were not encouraging in several respects, especially as far as staff-size and extent of the collections went.

In November, 1959, at a two-day work session in Chicago, the committee drafted

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a set of new standards which was submitted to presidents, deans and librarians of junior colleges, executive secretaries of accrediting agencies, leaders in the field of academic librarianship and other experts for their criticisms. While the committee greatly appreciated their advice and comments, it always recognized that the final responsibility rested with its members.

In January, 1960, a second draft was prepared which embodied many of the critical observations received. This draft was presented to the A.C.R.L. Board of Directors at the midwinter meeting and adopted by them unanimously. A public discussion at the A.L.A. conference in Montreal on June 20, 1960, brought favorable reactions from junior college librarians across the country.

Like its companion piece, the A.L.A. Standards for College Libraries, the new document is written in readable, concise language so that it will not be cumbersome to busy administrators because of wordiness or excessive technical detail. Its emphasis is on qualitative standards; on the other hand, some quantitative suggestions are included since such yardsticks are indispensable, especially in weaker institutions. The figures proposed for the size of the collections, etc. were chosen after careful deliberation. While it is not expected that they will be attained overnight, they do provide a goal for the nineteen-sixties. The new standards are designed to serve the entire country. There should not be separate standards for individual regions or states, nor should there be a basic difference of quality between public and private, religious and non-sectarian two-year institutions as far as their libraries are concerned. In general,

the new standards are flexible enough to meet various situations but are based on firm principles.

In the decade which has just begun, it is more important than at any previous time to have strong junior college libraries. The reasons are obvious: Enrollments are rapidly increasing, academic programs are becoming more varied, and emphasis on independent study and on general education is growing. Students who expect to transfer to four-year institutions eventually should be exposed to a well-rounded collection in their first two years so that they may compete on even terms with their fellow students in a senior college. While some persons say it is unrealistic to aim for such strong libraries, the Committee on Standards believes that this is the opportune time to ask for them. The American public has never been as keenly aware of the need for better support of higher education as in the past few years. Sputnik opened the public's eyes to the dangers of complacency and mediocrity.

The junior college library of tomorrow should be supported to the extent that it need not rely on the charity of other institutions for the performance of its essential services. This, of course, should not militate against intelligent cooperation between neighboring libraries to make the dollars spent by each of them go further.

What is the essence of the new standards? It is the concept of the library as the intellectual powerhouse of the junior college and, as a corollary, the concept of the junior college librarian as an educator. The central importance of the library is only gradually accepted by some junior college administrators. There are still occasionally books on the junior college

written by authorities without even a passing reference to the place of the library.

The junior college librarian must be a person deserving to be accepted as an equal by the teaching faculty. He or she should command respect by the evident deep concern for good books and for educational problems. At one time librarians could afford to be primarily custodians of their collections, more worried about circulation records and gadgets than about the inside of their books, but today a broadly educated, widely interested librarian is needed. He should not be burdened with tasks which a clerical assistant could perform just as well, but he should have time to serve on important committees of the faculty, especially those concerned with the curriculum and its implementation.

The size of the library staff will, of course, depend on the structure and the financial support of the institution. However, no adequate service is imaginable unless there are at least two professional librarians available. They usually have to cover a long schedule of working hours because many junior colleges operate evening divisions. The executive secretary of one accrediting agency felt that junior college libraries actually need a minimum of three professional librarians just as much as the libraries of four-year colleges do. The A.C.R.L. Committee on Standards, however, believes that the operation of the junior college library is usually less complex than that of the senior college library and that two professional librarians will suffice.

The Committee on Standards intentionally excluded any reference to dollar figures because the purchasing power of currency is subject to so many factors that

it would be unwise to be committed to specific sums. Who would dare to predict how many books can be bought for \$100 two or three years hence? Therefore it seemed advisable to select a percentage figure, as had proven to be an effective procedure in the A.L.A. Standards for college libraries. The same figure of five per cent of the institution's general and educational budget was chosen. This does not seem excessive in view of the fact that the latest median figure (published in *College and Research Libraries*, January, 1960) is four per cent. It should not be impossible to raise the figure by one per cent over the next few years. Institutions which have not supported their libraries properly in the past may find it necessary to invest considerably more than five per cent to bring them up to date. This is an important factor which should not be overlooked in planning the library budget for a longer period.

It is always difficult to determine the size of a book collection to serve the curricular needs and the general reading interests of a good junior college. There is no miraculous formula that this committee (or, for that matter, any committee) could propose. But observations of good libraries, such as those at Bradford, Briarcliff, Centenary and Colby Junior Colleges indicate that at least 20,000 well chosen volumes should be available in institutions with less than 1,000 students. This was also the figure suggested by many of the junior college librarians whom the committee consulted. The committee was aware of the fact that the median at present is only slightly above 10,000 volumes and that there are some states in which the average collection barely reaches 4,000 volumes. But even if one takes 10,-

000 volumes as a basis, it is not unrealistic to propose 20,000 volumes as a goal for the nineteen-sixties because many of the junior college librarians consulted agreed that an annual accession rate of about 1,000 volumes would not be unreasonable. It is interesting that C. L. Trinkner, reporting on the Florida situation in the *Junior College Journal* (March, 1960) arrives independently at the same figure of 20,000 well chosen volumes as the desirable minimum. In any case, the emphasis must be first on quality and second on quantity.

To assure the selection of books of scholarly merit that are educationally useful and intellectually stimulating the new standards propose the intensive use of a combination of outstanding bibliographies and important review journals. First, there must be a strong and up-to-date reference collection which is not confined solely to the areas covered by the curriculum but includes other fields of knowledge. Second, the library should be equipped to supplement the needs of the classroom. Otherwise textbook teaching, with all its educational shortcomings, is inevitable. The collection should also contain enough attractive, timely and thought-provoking books to develop in students the life-time habit of good reading. Finally, the need of instructors to keep abreast of the progress of scholarship should not be overlooked.

Most junior college libraries have a fair sampling of useful and interesting periodicals, but steps should be taken to develop a well-balanced subscription list and to hold substantial backfiles. The possibility that a journal might be too scholarly should not deter the librarian from order-

ing it because it is good experience for students to have to make an intellectual effort to get at significant information or a new point of view. An ever-present danger that should be guarded against is that of parochialism. It can and should be fought in a number of ways. One effective approach is through subscribing to outstanding journals from abroad, especially English publications such as the *Economist* (London), the *Manchester Guardian Weekly* or the *Times Literary Supplement*. Of course, there should also be on display attractive periodicals to kindle in the student the love of his own country's past. *American Heritage* and similar journals will help in this connection.

It is open to question how far a junior college library is obligated to provide audiovisual materials. It should assume responsibility for them if no other agency on campus takes the initiative. This would of course necessitate additional appropriations for staff and acquisitions.

As one travels through this country, he finds only too often the junior college library in an unattractive small corner of a building—two or three classrooms that have been "converted" to library use. The books are housed poorly on overcrowded shelves, and the seating capacity is low. One might wonder who would wish to sit down in such cheerless quarters, but many students have no other place on campus to do their research and their serious studying. Therefore, the seating capacity of 25 per cent of the student body, which the new standards envision, is not extravagant. Every effort will have to be made to work toward reaching this goal because failure will mean that students will be stymied in their quest of knowledge, will

become cynical about their work or may end up as unwelcome guests in the public library.

These are some of the fundamental ideas presented in the new A.L.A. Standards for Junior College Libraries. They are intended to help give the junior college library its rightful place in the life of the institution it serves. While the standards may not fulfill everyone's desires, they provide an adequate blueprint for the nineteen-sixties. One way to make the blueprint become reality would be to conduct an informal self-survey of the individual library undertaken jointly by the teaching faculty and the library staff with the cooperation of the administration and possibly with an outside expert. Such

a survey would point out the strength or weakness of the service, the collection, and the building. It would also tend to establish a closer bond between instructors and librarians and help to bridge the gap that so often exists between the library and the classroom. This in itself would be a valuable by-product of the new standards.

It is the urgent hope of the A.C.R.L. Committee on Standards and of the Association itself that the new standards will find the active cooperation of every junior college librarian in this country. But, beyond this, the constant forceful support of administrators and teaching faculties is needed to give the American junior colleges the strong libraries that are essential in this era of great educational changes.

Junior College Journalism Meets An Urgent Need

JOHN A. GOTHBERG

AT A RECENT junior college press conference three journalism instructors were comparing notes over an afternoon cup of coffee.

"Our college is dropping journalism," one fellow complained. "Too few students are enrolling in the classes."

This conversation could have taken place at any one of a number of colleges throughout the country. *Time* reported in the January 5, 1959, issue that attendance in journalism schools in the nation was 11,000, a 40 per cent drop since 1948. While departments of engineering, science, and business administration are expanding, enrollements in schools of journalism have been decreasing.

Ironically this is true at a time when newspapers and businesses are seeking well-trained journalism graduates. It was reported early in 1959 that the University of Missouri's School of Journalism had four times as many job offers as it had graduates, although there are some 300 students at Missouri majoring in news-editing, radio-television, and weekly and small-daily publishing.

From 1956-1960 JOHN A. GOTHBERG was a journalism instructor and publications officer at Oakland City College, California. He now serves as coordinator of publications and assistant professor of journalism at the State College for Alameda County, Hayward, California.

"I can place every one of my graduates," a journalism department head at a San Francisco Bay Area college confided recently. "The challenge today is to encourage our bright young people to select journalism as a career."

Some college counselors refer to courses in journalism as unnecessary frills. Non-journalism teachers sometimes think little else is done in these classes but publish a college newspaper. There are educators, too, who insist the student planning to enter this field should concentrate solely on obtaining a liberal arts education and wait until he is employed to learn the skills of the journalist. On the other hand, Columbia University's Dean Edward W. Barrett believes that the average person will find the specialized training of a college journalism program will make it possible for him to advance five, six, or even ten years faster in his career than he could otherwise. *Time* has reported that most newspapers now prefer to hire the journalism graduate because he does not have some practical experience grafted on to a liberal arts education.

Those who have doubts about the advantages attending a school of journalism offer a future journalist might look at the record made by the University of Nevada's journalism graduates. Dr. Dwight Bentel of San Jose State College wrote about Nevada in a recent issue of *Editor*

and *Publisher*: "From graduating classes averaging eight a year (tiny trickle) two have won Pulitzer prizes. One has won the Sigma Delta Chi award for public service. Four graduates are mentioned conspicuously in Joe Alex Morris' history of the United Press, *Deadline Every Minute*. One of these is now a foreign correspondent, two UP bureau executives, the fourth a counsel for the interior and insular affairs committee of the United States Senate."

Newspapermen often have expressed their pleasure with Nevada's fine work. In 1958 the Nevada Press Association met in the Journalism Building at the University of Nevada for its annual convention with the theme, "The 35th Anniversary of the Beginning of Nevada Journalism Instruction."

The journalism crisis is intensified by the fact that many persons trained for journalism are being defected into other fields. A study reported in *Editor and Publisher* by George J. Kienzle, director of Ohio State's School of Journalism, showed that of 185 journalism graduates in 1953 selected from American colleges for this study five out of ten went to work in the newsroom, but six years later only three out of ten remained. More remunerative positions in public relations, advertising, and business lured journalists away from the newspapers.

How does the shortage of journalists affect this nation today, and what will its effect be 20 or 30 years hence? Mass media have developed to a point that hardly an hour passes when a person is not influenced in some way by television drama, a radio commercial, or a newspaper headline.

Such books as *Brave New World* and

1984 envision the world of tomorrow shackled by conformity. Even today one may drive westward from New York and find little difference from state to state in living habits, topics of conversation, and kinds of entertainment. This is not necessarily bad, but it does serve to emphasize the tremendous impact mass media have had upon the citizenry.

Vance Packard warns in his *Hidden Persuaders* that "... many of us are being influenced and manipulated far more than we realize in the patterns of our everyday lives." He continues, "... many of the nation's leading public-relations experts have been indoctrinating themselves in the lore of psychiatry and the social sciences in order to increase their skill at 'engineering' our consent to their propositions."

Such power to mold public thinking aided Adolph Hitler's climb to dictator over much of Europe by 1940. Manipulating verbal symbols can become rewarding, financially and otherwise, to many. It is therefore incumbent upon the public schools to educate the young men and women who one day will hold places of responsibility in the mass media to respect the sacred trust to be vested in them.

Often the press is not considered an instrument of education. Russia's recent advances in science have caused this country's leaders to voice doubt concerning the quality of education received by young Americans today. Citizens usually concern themselves first with schools when considering the problems of educating youth, but they should be reminded, however, that mass media play a significant, though perhaps less organized, role in education.

Many persons are appalled to learn that

in families owning television sets viewing time averaged over 22 hours a week per person during 1958. The Fourth Estate, however, has not been neglected during this period of mass enthusiasm for the newer media. Today newspapers boast a daily circulation which is 10 per cent greater than 1950's average.

There are three reasons, then, for guiding students into journalism courses: 1. the shortage of well-qualified journalists, 2. the important responsibility held by those in the mass media, and 3. the need for the educated layman to be better informed concerning mass communications.

In order to describe what the study of journalism offers, it might be well to consider some of the objectives of junior college journalism:

1. The student learns to gather facts and to arrange, evaluate and interpret them for his reader.
2. He develops skill in several areas of reporting. (College courses, research projects, and business enterprises all place a premium upon well-written reports; consequently, this skill is useful in many ways.)
3. The journalism student learns to interpret statistical data for his readers since the use of such information has become commonplace in recent years.
4. Special emphasis is given to developing skill in careful observation. Alert listening is so important it often spells success or failure for the college student as well as for the newspaper reporter.
5. The student learns the importance of objective writing as one of the marks of a responsible press.
6. Every attempt is made to awaken the student to his own prejudices in order that he may think critically. (For instance, a young person who has been taught since early childhood to discriminate against certain racial or ethnic groups must become aware

of his bias if he is to write objectively about integration attempts in the South.)

7. Journalistic writing stresses simplicity and clarity of expression. Long, involved sentences are a hindrance to a reader.

"You certainly employ a wide vocabulary in this article, Miss Wilson," a journalism instructor was overheard telling a student, "but what are you trying to say?" In *The Art of News Communication* Dr. Chilton Bush of Stanford University labels this widespread malady "semantic noise," which he defines as the writer's selection of words not understandable to the reader. He includes in this definition the use of confusing sentence patterns and poor organization of facts.

8. By studying the history of journalism the student develops an understanding of the free press and a desire to maintain it.

These objectives are important not only to the journalism major but to all students. Instead of limiting journalism classes to those considering it as a career, it might be well to encourage students in other areas to enroll in these courses as part of their general education.

Why, some may ask, should a mass communications major begin his journalism studies in junior college? Certainly a student needs to lay a foundation for his upper division journalism work, and an over-all view of the field and some news-writing skill will facilitate his endeavors at the upper division level. In addition, a student may find employment after two years of college. A. E. Gilbert, formerly in charge of the San Francisco office of the California Newspaper Publishers Association, has placed many young junior college graduates on small newspapers. He states the present trend, however, is to require the bachelor's degree for reporting positions on most newspapers. Students should be encouraged to continue upper division work, but it must be remembered

that some of them cannot afford further college training and the junior college can give them a terminal education.

One of the functions of the junior colleges is to provide exploratory experiences and guidance for the young person choosing a career. Many working journalists today had their original interest sparked in a junior college journalism class. In view of the growth predicted for junior colleges, this level of education offers one of the best opportunities to guide many students into the important field of journalism.

At its inception in 1957 the California Journalism Association of Junior Colleges sought the development of a sound junior college journalism curriculum. A state curriculum committee was organized, and, working with representatives from the senior colleges, the group outlined a lower division journalism curriculum for transfer credit to four-year colleges. Representatives of both the two- and four-year institutions have agreed upon two journalism courses as acceptable for transfer credit—a one semester survey course, sometimes called "Introduction to Journalism," and a one-year class in newswriting. The association has also stimulated the interest of the California Newspapers Publishers Association in sponsoring journalism scholarships for outstanding

junior college journalism students.

A cooperative venture with the publishers' association is underway now to develop an intern program so that junior college journalism students may gain actual newspaper experience while attending college. The journalism association will continue to seek the cooperation of groups interested in assisting high caliber students to select careers in journalism. It is this group's desire to encourage larger and more selective enrollments in college journalism departments.

To meet the demand for well-trained journalists, junior colleges may make a real contribution by building a strong journalism curriculum. Counselors should encourage young people with verbal facility to enter this field. Furthermore, they can and should advise college students of the present need and demand for well-qualified journalists.

Recently a California editor wrote to a former CJAJC president lamenting the "almost total absence of journalism" at the local junior college. He implied that unless college administrators develop a strong journalism program students of ability will be attracted into other fields. Junior college educators have a responsibility to young people and to the nation to maintain a strong and free press.

Developing Cooperative Relationships Between the Junior College and Its Business Community*

REX GORTON

VARIOUS KINDS of operational practices designed to establish effective cooperative relationships between junior college business education programs and organized community business groups were identified and described in the last issue of this journal. The purpose of this article is to report the importance of 30 criteria which emerged from the classification and analyses of these practices. Such criteria may serve as standards for junior college educators interested in appraising the effectiveness of active relationships between their junior college business education programs and organized groups of business representatives within the college community.

The 30 proposed criteria were classified under six major headings: purposes, administrative organization, curriculums and courses, staff participation, student personnel services, and evaluation. The criteria were listed on a rating scale on which 25 business educators, 17 junior college specialists, 27 businessmen, and 11 representatives of labor rated the importance of each item on a five-point scale: 5 essential, 4 very important, 3 important, 2 of little importance, 1 of no importance. A numerical average was computed for each item by dividing the sum of the

weightings assigned to it by the number who rated it. Tables I to VI show two different rankings assigned to each criterion within the category to which it is related as determined by: (1) educators on the panel, including business educators and junior college specialists and (2) business representatives on the panel, including representatives of management and labor. These rankings will be used as a basis for discussing the criteria.

It will be observed that in the opinion of the representatives of education, 26 criteria are either "essential" or "very important," and four are rated as "important." In the opinion of the representatives of business, 28 of the criteria are judged as either "essential" or "very important," and the remaining two are judged "important."

I. PURPOSES

The ratings assigned to the criteria under purposes (see Table I) indicate that educators consider most important a statement of purposes justifying active relationships with organized groups, but businessmen feel that the necessity for faculty understanding and the requirements that businessmen and women ac-

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* The first part of this article appeared in the October, 1960, issue of the *Junior College Journal*.

TABLE I

Expert Judgments of Five Criteria Listed Under Purposes for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
The college has a statement of purposes justifying active relationships with organized business groups as important to the development of its business education program	1	4.71	3	4.47
The purposes of the college, as they relate to active relationships with organized business groups, are understood and accepted by the faculty	2	4.69	1.5	4.50
The purposes of the college, as they relate to active relationships with organized business groups, are reflected in the program and activities of the business education program	3	4.67	4	4.13
The purposes of the college, as they relate to active relationships with organized business groups, are accepted and understood by the businessmen and women representing these organized groups	4	4.57	1.5	4.50
The purposes of the college, as they relate to active relationships with organized business groups, recognize the needs of all business groups eligible to receive the assistance in the development of their educational programs	5	4.43	5	4.11

cept purposes that justify active relationships are equal and highest in importance. The fact that educators place emphasis on the statement of purpose suggests their preoccupation with acceptance of one of the basic concerns of the community college. On the other hand, the concern of businessmen with faculty and organized business groups and their understanding and acceptance of the college's concept of active relationships cannot succeed without broad comprehension and acceptance of all parties involved. Both the representatives of education and business agree that the requirement to consider the edu-

cational needs of all organized business groups is of least importance among the five practices in this group.

II. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

Among the items dealing with administrative organization (see Table II), educators rank first the importance of having college personnel assigned the responsibility of developing and maintaining active business relationships, but first in the minds of businessmen is the need for an administrative plan designed to further the college's program of active relationships. Businessmen list adequate

TABLE II

Expert Judgments of Five Criteria Listed Under Administrative Organization for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
The college staff includes personnel responsible for developing and maintaining active relationships with organized business groups in the development of the education program	1	4.57	4	4.11
The college has a plan for the organization and use of advisory committees in business education....	2	4.50	2.5	4.13
The college has an administrative plan for furthering its active relationships with organized business groups	3	4.45	1	4.26
The duties and responsibilities of the college personnel responsible for carrying on active relationships with organized business groups in the development of the business education program have been defined	4	4.40	5	4.03
Adequate financial support is provided by the college to accomplish its purposes, as they relate to active relationships with organized business groups	5	4.38	2.5	4.13

financial support of the purposes of active relationships as second in importance, but educators rank it last. It is interesting to note that while this criterion was not mentioned by educators in the colleges visited, it was recommended in the literature. The failure of educators to mention financial support and the lower rating assigned to the item by educators, compared to the higher rating given by businessmen, suggests that business educators and junior college specialists feel the cost of establishing and maintaining active relationships to be of primary importance. Educational representatives rate participation by business educators in the activity of organized business groups in

order to increase their professional competence secondary in importance, but the business representatives of the jury accord it fifth place. Representatives of business and education differ in rating the importance of business instructors' serving as members of advisory committees. Business representatives feel this activity is first in importance; educators rank it last.

Since criteria dealing with staff participation are based on practices designed to provide in-service training opportunities to teachers as well as course improvements, differences of opinion expressed by the two jury groups regarding the relative importance of advisory committee membership and business instructors' partici-

pation in groups representing office or distributive occupations may have certain implications. One possibility is that business teachers have failed to make known to businessmen the in-service training benefits which they receive from their participation in organizations such as the National Office Management Association and the National Sales Executives. Another possibility is that businessmen have noted specific benefits derived by business education instructors resulting from their membership on advisory committees, while educators have not seen the in-service potential in advisory committee activity.

V. CURRICULUM AND COURSES

This category (see Table V) is the second (the first is evaluation) in which both educators and businessmen agree on the relative ranking of all activities in a group. The need for organized groups to contribute instructional materials to the colleges' business education classes ranks last. It is interesting to note that while this activity was not mentioned by the colleges visited or by the businessmen, it was recommended in the literature. The rating of this activity within the category and the failure of businessmen and educators interviewed to mention it as an

TABLE III

Expert Judgments of Five Criteria Listed Under Evaluation for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
The college has a plan for evaluating the effectiveness of its relationships with organized business groups	1	4.24	1.	4.42
The advice of organized business groups is sought in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the business education program	2	4.19	2	3.95
The college, in cooperation with organized business groups, conducts surveys to determine training needs in business education	3	4.14	3	3.92
The contributions of college business education instructors to the educational activities of organized business groups are understood and appreciated by the representatives of these groups	4	3.88	4	3.89
The members of organized business groups are provided with opportunities for increased professional competence through the cooperation of their groups with college business education programs	5	3.83	5	3.76

TABLE IV

Expert Judgment of Five Criteria Listed Under Staff Participation for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
Members of the college staff are encouraged to participate in the program of establishing and maintaining active relationships with organized business groups	1	4.05	2	3.79
College business education staff members are active in business groups representing the office and distributive occupations in order to increase their professional competence	2	3.86	5	3.58
The business education program benefits from the participation of the college business education staff members in the activities of trade and professional associations	3	3.76	4	3.63
In addition to the contacts with organized business groups, the business education staff maintains contact with individual businessmen and representatives of labor in the community	4	3.64	3	3.76
Business education instructors are members of advisory committees representing their respective areas of instruction	5	3.45	1	4.13

effective practice tend to substantiate the item as low in importance for use in appraising active relationships.

VI. STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

Highest and of equal importance in the group of student personnel services (see Table VI), according to business representatives, are items concerned with organized groups' assistance in increasing the effectiveness of the colleges' guidance activities and business education counselors' meeting with business education advisory committees. Educational repre-

sentatives consider these two activities equal and second in importance. Both jury groups place last in importance the criterion concerned with business groups' providing scholarships for qualified business education students. This item was not mentioned in interviews with college and business representatives as an effective practice, but it was reported so in the literature. Since it was not discussed in the interviews and ranked last within the category, it seems to be a criterion of relatively low significance.

TABLE V

Expert Judgments of Four Criteria Listed Under Curriculums and Courses for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
Programs, such as business clinics and seminars and business education days, are developed in cooperation with organized business groups.....	1	4.17	1	3.76
Two-year curriculums, semester-length courses, and short-unit courses in business education are developed in cooperation with organized business groups	2	4.12	2	3.66
New college business education programs may be initiated on the recommendation of an advisory committee or of an organized group representing an office or distributive occupation	3	3.73	3	3.55
Organized business groups contribute instructional materials to the college's business education classes	4	3.38	4	3.11

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the findings reported, the following conclusions seem warranted: (1) business and education representatives participating in this study believe that effective relationships can be developed and improved through the use of certain practices; (2) effective relationships must involve active participation by college staff members, including administrators, instructors, and student personnel workers; (3) adequate financial support must be provided for the successful achievement of cooperative relations; (4) continual attention must be given to active relationships in order to insure their achievement; (5) criteria emerging from

the practices studied may be useful in establishing and appraising cooperative activities between junior colleges and business groups; (6) advisory committees can and do play a notably important role in developing effective community relationships; (7) practices judged most valuable should be utilized more widely by colleges and business; (8) certain practices may be more effective in one community than in another; (9) preliminary planning designed to develop working relationships at the time the college is established assists in their development; and (10) the description of practices used and especially favored may contain useful suggestions for junior colleges trying to effect cooperative activities.

TABLE VI

Expert Judgments of Six Criteria Listed Under Student Personnel Services for Determining Active Relationships Between Junior College Business Education Programs and Organized Business Groups

Criteria	Educators		Businessmen	
	Rank Order	Average Number	Rank Order	Average Number
The assistance of members of organized groups is sought in order to increase the effectiveness of the placement service for business education students	1	4.4	3	3.87
The assistance of members of organized groups is sought in order to increase the effectiveness of the guidance activities for business education students	2.33	3.76	1.5	3.95
Counselors responsible for advising business education students meet with the business education advisory committees	2.33	3.76	1.5	3.95
A representative of the college staff responsible for the placement of business education students is associated with an organized business group representing the office or distributive occupations	2.33	3.76	5	3.53
A representative of the college staff responsible for counseling business education students is associated with an organized business group representing the office or distributive occupations..	5	3.48	4	3.58
Organized business groups representing the office and distributive occupations provide scholarships for selected business education students.....	6	3.24	6	3.18

Materials for Teaching Remedial Reading in College

HELEN LEFEVRE

THE TEACHER of remedial reading at the college freshman level finds little instructional material specifically planned for his use. A wealth of material intended for high school instruction is available, as well as a number of texts designed for developmental reading courses in college. Since these developmental books are too difficult for a freshman who reads, say, at the ninth or tenth grade level, there is a tendency to fall back on the high school books.

The problem which confronts the college teacher of remedial reading is further complicated by the great range in reading ability to be found in his class. He may have students who are reading at the eleventh grade level sitting next to students of sixth and seventh grade reading ability. Since it is in any case desirable to use some material for group instruction and some for individual work, the teacher may select a variety of books for individual use, and a text of moderate difficulty for group instruction. The present writer is currently using graded workbooks for individual study and correction, and word-perception, dictionary, oral reading and study-type materials for group work.

Listed below are some instructional

materials which may prove useful to the college teacher of remedial reading. These are arranged under the following headings: vocabulary builders; reading texts designed for high school use; texts intended for remedial college work; other possible texts; resource materials; outside reading lists; mechanical devices.

VOCABULARY BUILDERS

Paul Witty and Edith Grotberg, *Developing Your Vocabulary*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1960. Aside from its attractive format, this book has clarity and an unusually pleasant tone. A series of 19 lessons, each focused on such problems as dictionary use, connotation, or structural analysis. Only a few phrases such as "your homeroom" are clearly high school in orientation. Answers are printed upsidedown under each exercise. This book is excellent for all readers at 9-12 grade levels.

Frieda Radke, *Word Resources*. New York: Odyssey, 1955. An excellent and diversified book with a wealth of material; good for readers at grade levels 10-13. Keys are at the back.

Ward S. Miller, *Word Wealth*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1948. This book is planned for grades 10-12. Good; diversified. The junior edition, *Word Wealth, Jr.*, is also good, but the set-up and pictures clearly indicate the 9th and 10th grade orientation.

Wilfred Funk and Norman Lewis, *Thirty Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary*. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1949. This is too advanced for the average remedial student.

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Interest level is high, stimulating for the better student who is moving ahead rapidly and has high motivation. Answers follow each exercise.

- H. C. Hardwick, *Words Are Important*. Maplewood, N.J.: C. S. Hammond & Co. The specific advantage of the Hardwick books is that they are graded: Introductory Book (Grade 8); First Book (9); Second Book (10); Third Book (11); Fourth Book (12); Senior Book (12, 13).

3 x 5 cards. A card system is one of the best methods of vocabulary building. On one side of the card, the student prints the word in large, clear letters, indicating the pronunciation by a few simple diacritical marks and an accent mark for the primary accent (underlining the accented syllable may also be helpful); a phrase including the word and revealing its part of speech should be written on this side also. The reverse of the card should show a simple definition of the word. The vocabulary of the basic subjects which the student is studying—sociology, biology, mathematics—may be covered by these cards, and the student may benefit from classifying them by subject.

READING TEXTS DESIGNED FOR HIGH SCHOOL USE

Elizabeth Simpson, *SRA Better Reading Books*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Books 1-3. Instructor's Manual. Time-to-rate table. Progress folders available for students. Each book contains 20 articles, each followed by 20 comprehension questions. Interesting selections; no age-level problem. Indicated grade-levels: Book 1, 5.0-6.9; Book 2, 7.0-8.9; Book 3, 9.0-10.9. Grade levels are not shown on books. Keys are available.

W. S. Guilder and J. H. Coleman, *Reading for Meaning*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1945. Grades 6-12. Grade level is clearly indicated on cover. For poorer students, grades 6-8 are satisfactory; material is simple and informational but not too childish. Grades 9-12 are also good. The comprehension materials are very satisfactory; vocabulary questions are adequate.

There are 24 brief units per book. Keys are available in the instructor's manual.

Don S. Parker, *SRA Reading Laboratory: College Prep*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1959. This is a box of materials to be issued in class by the teacher. Student record books are available for individual students. Colors indicate grade levels 8-14; intended for use in grades 9-13. The Starting Level Guide is to be used as pretest. For each grade, there are 20 Power Builders (2 copies of each); and 20 Rate Builders (2 copies); 10 Listening Skill Builders for the class as a whole and 7 Notetaking Skill Builders complete the set. Selections are of high interest. This is excellent, particularly for motivation and rate-building. Keys are on cards for easy student use. Little teacher-time is required.

Paul Witty, *How to Become a Better Reader*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. Student Reading Progress Folder available if desired or work can be done in book. The first half of the book provides excellent student orientation: 20 lessons, including exercises on vocabulary building, speed, skimming, etc. The second half of the book provides 20 reading selections, each followed by 20 comprehension questions and 10 vocabulary items. High interest level. No age-level problem. Keys are at the back of the book. This is excellent for all readers at grade levels 10-13. *How to Improve Your Reading* by the same author (also SRA) is designed for the junior high school.

Marion Monroe, Gwen Horsman, William S. Gray, *Basic Reading Skills for High School Use*. Revised Edition. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1958. A teacher's edition is available, with answers. Varied; word study, including phonetic and structural analysis; phrase and sentence meaning; main idea, etc. Practice and drill are the main approach here. Title, content and pictorial elements clearly indicate the high school orientation.

Eleanor M. Johnson, *Modern Reading: A Reading Improvement Skill text*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1956. Books 1-3. Forty short selections followed by ade-

quate comprehension and varied word-study exercises; well illustrated. The selections are of considerable interest. Reading Progress Record for student use. This is for poorer students.

Harold A. Anderson and Isabel M. Kincheloe, *Advanced Reading Skill Builder*. Pleasantville, N.Y.: Reader's Digest Educational Department, 1958. Books One-Four. There are 20 human interest selections, followed by comprehension and vocabulary exercises, as well as suggestions for discussion, and other items varied according to the selection. This book is attractive with many colored headings and illustrations; most useful perhaps as auxiliary text or outside reading.

Lydia A. Thomas, *Secrets of Successful Living*. Books 1-6. Pleasantville, N.Y.: The Reader's Digest Ass'n, Inc., 1956. Indicated level: junior and senior high schools and adult education. Thirty human-interest stories followed by suggestions for writing, reading, and a few points on vocabulary. This is perhaps best as outside reading for poorer students. Teacher's manual.

TEXTS INTENDED FOR COLLEGE REMEDIAL WORK

Doris W. Gilbert, *Breaking the Reading Barrier*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959. This is designed for "special freshman groups and adult education centers" and for "certain industrial and extension classes." According to the author, the book is "not intended for good readers" but is "not for severely handicapped readers." It contains a wealth of material: phrase, sentence and paragraph comprehension; a few short articles; vocabulary building exercises; pronunciation system confusing to poor readers and spellers (low-kwa'-shus). It is an excellent drill-type book. Progress charts. Keys are at back.

Everett L. Jones, *An Approach to College Reading*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1953. Thirty-one selections are followed by 10 theme topics; 10 good comprehension questions; 20-25 multiple-choice vocabulary items (vocabulary level excel-

lent for college remedial work). Keys are available.

Shirley Ullman Wedeen, *College Remedial Reader: Exercises in Standard Textbook Reading*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1958. Fifty short selections, each with an introductory note and in most cases a Flesch "reading ease score." The author notes: "In general, scores below 50 indicate college level material; it is, therefore, not at all surprising that the majority of selections fall between 30 and 50." Selections in English (13); fine arts (4); mathematics (6); physical sciences (10); social sciences (17). Each selection is followed by 10 true-false questions. Unfortunate title; questions on selections seem inadequate; no vocabulary work (yet many concept words involved in selections). Selections themselves are excellent, however, particularly for students reading at 12th grade level, or perhaps even at 11th. Answer keys, comprehension graph and time graphs are at back.

Arthur Trace and Thomas Phillips, *Preparatory Reading for Writing*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1958. A book designed for a remedial reading-writing course, this has good reading material. There are 22 selections of considerable interest, each followed by a tear-out page covering comprehension (sentence answers), vocabulary (student written definitions), and spelling (teacher-dictated words). This book is good, but much teacher time is required. There are tear-out pages also on dictionary use, grammar, punctuation, etc.

OTHER POSSIBLE TEXTS

Ruth Strang, *Study Type of Reading Exercises: College Level*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. There are 17 chapters on such topics as "Skim or Sink," "Mechanics of Eye Movements," "Reading in Different Fields of Study," etc. Many chapters have supplementary exercises, as well as comprehension questions (some asking for paragraph or sentence answers) and some vocabulary work. This is not too hard for students reading at grade levels 11 and 12. It is conscientiously planned and carried through but has low interest level.

Time chart, progress chart are at the back of the book.

Norman Lewis, *How to Read Better and Faster*. Third Edition. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1958. This book is evidently aimed at adults. It contains 12 chapters on such topics as "How to Read Faster Than You Now Do," "How to Skim," "How to Whip Through Material with Good Comprehension." Exercises in digit, word and phrase comprehension (flashmeter card included for these); 22 timed selections; 20 rapid comprehension exercises; 20 rapid perception selections (printed in narrow columns). There is a progress chart at the back of the books and keys are at the end of each exercise. The atmosphere is high-pressure; a constant attempt to motivate, constant stress on speed. The approach seems generally mechanical and unsuited to the average remedial student.

RESOURCE MATERIALS

Texts in other courses. The other courses students are taking probably include English, social science, and physical science. Class discussion of specific reading problems in courses of these kinds, such as variation in speed of reading and grasp of concept words, and suggestions as to procedures will be helpful, particularly in ensuring continuing progress after the close of the reading course. Some suggestions along this line may be found in Frances Triggs' *We All Teach Reading: A Guide to Subject Matter Teachers in Schools and Colleges*. New York: Privately printed by the author, 1954.

Readers. There are many excellent collections of readings on the market, and the reading teacher may wish to include one as an auxiliary text or as outside reading. For poor students of low motivation, materials of high interest are included in Ruth Strang's and Ralph Roberts' *Teen Age* (Books 1 and 2. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1954), and in the Landmark Books (New York: Random House) and Signature Books (New York: Grosset and Dunlap). Well-written western or science fiction,

animal or automobile stories may also serve for very poor readers.

Magazines. The Kuder Preference Test will help in suggesting magazines to interest each student. The librarian may consent to visit the class as a consultant, also, bringing magazines into the classroom.

Pamphlets. The U.S. Government Printing Office can supply a list of pamphlets on many subjects, from labor unions to curtain selections. These pamphlets are simply written and present no age-level problem. Current lists of pamphlets published by Science Research Associates, Chicago (Life Adjustment Pamphlets and Modern World of Science Series), as well as the Public Affairs Pamphlets (22 E. 38th St., New York City), will be helpful. It is well to check the age-level of these pamphlets, however; some are clearly aimed at high school students. The librarian will also probably have a pamphlet file.

Assorted publications. The government *Occupational Outlook* (Government Printing Office), illustrated; books on etiquette (Amy Vanderbilt's); the state's driver's handbook; the directions on tax forms; classified ads; a college bulletin.

READING LISTS

Easy Reading for Adults: Three Hundred Titles Helpful to Living in America. New York: New York Public Library, 1954. Titles classified as Picture Books, Very Easy Readers, Easy, Fairly Easy, Standard, Fairly Difficult, Information and Reference. An excellent short comment follows each title. A reader index (foreign-born, etc.), a subject index, and an author-title index conclude the book. Usable by both teacher and student.

George R. Carlsen and others, *Books for You: A List for Leisure Reading for Use by Students in Senior High Schools*. Champaign, Ill.: The National Council of Teachers of English, 1956. For the teacher only; age-level must be checked carefully.

Atwood H. Townsend and others, *Good Reading*. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, 1955. Classified list of books with very brief description

after each title. While too difficult for the average remedial student, this book is for the student who moves ahead rapidly and has high motivation.

Olga Svatik, *Paperbound Book Guide for Colleges*. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1960. Issued twice a year. List of more than 2,000 inexpensive reprints, classified by subject. Careful use by the teacher would no doubt reveal some excellent materials.

George Spache, *Good Books for Poor Readers*. Champaign: Garrard Press, 1958. Four chapters on psychological and social factors influencing reactions to books. Lists of texts, magazines, student book club plans, etc., as well as annotated lists of books. Perhaps best for high school use.

Alfred Stefferud, *The Wonderful World of Books*. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, 1952.

Lists of simplified classics. Current lists available from such publishers as D. Appleton-Century Company (New York); Longmans, Green and Co. (New York); Scott, Foresman and Co. (Chicago). A list of simplified classics is given by Glenn Blair in his *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching*, pp. 196-98. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956).

MECHANICAL DEVICES

Reading accelerators. It is true that the student can move a piece of cardboard down the page and thus achieve a less artificial reading situation than that provided by the accelerator, as some critics have pointed out. Initial work with the accelerator, however, is useful for motivation and for teaching concentration.

Tachistoscopes. Drill in word and phrase recognition with a tachistoscope may be hard to relate to actual reading improvement, but it does provoke student interest and is useful occasionally for motivation.

Devices for projecting reading matter at various speeds. An artificial reading situation, but good for stimulation and motivation. Check the type of reading matter provided and the type of questions asked

in the accompanying manual. For occasional use.

Reading films. (Harvard University Reading Films; Iowa Reading Films, College Series; Purdue Reading Films; C-B Educational Films, San Francisco.) Mostly too difficult for use in remedial classes. If they are available, try some of the biographical sketches, such as those on Elbert Hubbard (Harvard 2) or Robert Fulton (C-B).

Materials for oral reading may be drawn from any book which the students use in common.¹ No specific provision for oral work is made in the books listed.

In a number of the books reviewed, exercises involving word-perception skills are lacking; yet the college reader who needs remedial work generally needs also some work of this sort directed toward the kind of vocabulary he must cope with as a college student. The problem of pronunciation is handled by Gilbert and also by Funk by a second "phonetic" spelling of the word. This seems unfortunate since the student needs to associate the word and its actual spelling with the pronunciation.

Also lacking in the materials listed is an opportunity for the student to test himself on his comprehension of passages longer than two or three pages. Chapters from books on reserve in the library may be useful here.

In spite of these few lacks, there is a fair supply of material available. The right combination for a particular group must depend on the judgment of the classroom instructor.

¹ For the values in such oral work, see Helen M. Robinson (ed.), *Oral Aspects of Reading: Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading held at the University of Chicago, 1955* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955).

Building the Junior College Program in Forensics

BARBARA J. HULL

BUILDING A junior college forensic program is a difficult and challenging task! The author's purpose in writing this article is to share with speech teachers in other institutions some ideas that have proven helpful in starting and building the forensic program at St. Petersburg Junior College.

PROBLEMS FACING THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DIRECTOR OF FORENSICS

Setting up a forensic program anywhere presents problems, but there are particular situations confronting the junior college director. The following are the problems that had to be—and still are—considered at St. Petersburg Junior College.

1. The lack of out-of-class time for forensics is a real problem. Absence of dormitories on campus means that students commute from all parts of the county, and even from out of the county. Others hold part-time jobs in the afternoons and evenings. This situation is especially typical in a junior college since lack of money is one of the basic reasons students attend a junior college instead of a state university. Also inevitable is the competition with other activities that vie for the student's time, attention, and participation during the on-campus hours.

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2. The difficulty of scheduling meetings, practice sessions, debates, and speech events that will not conflict with the class schedules of either students or director is a constant problem. One solution to solve this problem of time is by holding one evening training meeting each week and one day meeting (held during the two-hour activity period, which is a part of the college schedule on Tuesdays and Thursdays), plus individual appointments as needed.

3. The absence of room in the student's schedule for a college credit course or workshop in discussion, argumentation, or debate is another area of concern. This is especially true in the junior college where students are loaded down with so many "courses required for university transfer" that little or no time is left in the schedule for electives. Sometimes all but the basic Fundamentals of Speech course have to fight for survival even though students express a real desire to include such courses in their college program.

4. The time and the energy of the director of forensics are factors which must be considered. Too often the junior college director teaches a full load of classes and is entirely responsible for the co-curricular forensic program as well. This means that he must pace himself carefully. Risking one's health as well as the quality of classroom instruction is not a sound policy. Building an effective forensic program is a gradual but persistent process.

5. The struggle to finance the junior college forensic program is another problem to be faced. At St. Petersburg Junior College, money is allocated from the Student Activity Fund. Often a forensic program may have to operate on a proverbial "shoestring" at the beginning, but as the program grows in value,

participation, and prestige, the amount allocated to its budget is usually increased.

With these problems in mind, the ideas and activities that may be used to build a forensic program worthy of the "respect and support of the student body, the faculty, the administration, and community"¹ will now be considered.

DEVELOPING COMMUNITY INTEREST AND SERVICE

The junior college is a community college, and as such the speech department has an excellent opportunity to be of service to the community and to win support from it. The following suggestions might prove helpful to a speech department director:

1. Plan and present radio and television programs which explain the purposes of the college forensic program and present different types of public speaking. The St. Petersburg Junior College forensic honorary has presented two such programs on television—one explaining the objectives and giving examples of the different types of public speeches, and the other presenting a debate preceded by a discussion of the purpose, structure, and value of this form of speech activity. Students have also participated in discussions held on timely issues in a weekly radio program entitled "Youth Takes a Stand."

2. Form a Speaker's Bureau and present speeches, debates, and discussions before various community organizations. Students need the experience of speaking to "live" audiences, and the community can benefit from the discussion of worthwhile topics. Lists of several issues of local, national, or international concern (one of which should be the national college debate topic for the year), as well as dates available for such programs, can be sent to various organizations at the beginning of each school year.

¹ Ida May Brendel, "Directing a Forensic Program," *The AFA Register*, Special High School Issue (1957), p. 2.

3. Acquaint civic groups with the opportunity of giving financial assistance to deserving college students with forensic ability.²

4. Encourage the sponsorship of speech contests by community or national organizations as a means of developing interest and support, as well as providing good speech experience for the students.

5. Invite the public to forensic competition held at the junior college to see the program in action. The persuasive speaking contest sponsored by the Women's Christian Temperance Union on "Alcohol and Related Problems" has especially attracted members of the St. Petersburg community to the college campus.

6. Use newspaper articles, pictures, and feature stories to keep the community informed of speech activities and achievements.

7. Keep the alumni posted concerning forensic plans, activities, and achievements through the means of newsletters or annual socials.³ A Christmas party, sponsored by the forensic honorary society and held when the alumni are home for the holidays, is a popular event at St. Petersburg Junior College each year.

DEVELOPING FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

Much happier is the life of the forensic director who has the enthusiastic backing of the junior college faculty and administration. Here are a few suggestions to ease the pathway toward faculty co-operation:

1. Use issues studied in the political science and education classes as the subjects for discussions, debates, and speeches to be presented to these classes. Often a teacher will be interested in having his own students hold classroom debates in order to encourage interest in the forensic program. For the past two years several of the political science classes

² Arthur N. Kruger, *Modern Debate Its Logic and Strategy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 383.

³ Paul Dickerson Brandes, "A Public Relations Program for Debate," *The Speaker of Tau Kappa Alpha*, XXXV (March, 1953), p. 12.

at St. Petersburg Junior College have held discussions or debates on the annual national college debate topic, and last year education class students were encouraged to enter the campus intramural persuasive speaking contest on the general topic of "Education—Formal, Informal, or Adult."

2. Ask appropriate faculty members to serve as experts on the annual national college debate topic, presenting background information and joining in discussions with the students.

3. Explain the objectives of the forensic program to the members of the faculty and invite them to witness public speaking events held on the campus.

4. Seek qualified instructors to serve as judges for contests, but do not "over-use" their abilities.

5. Suggest to faculty members an important way in which they may help the forensic program—by recommending to the director of forensics the names of students who are actually or potentially good speech material.

6. Have a clear policy concerning student absence from classes in order to attend forensic events. Students should be held responsible for making up material missed, either before the absence itself or immediately afterwards.

Melzer⁴ lists the following helps toward effective administrative support:

1. A well-planned intramural, interschool, school service, and community service program.
2. Evidence of real interest on part of students.
3. Evident parental support.
4. Credible and appreciative community service.
5. Business-like handling of forensic finances.
6. Minimum conflict between debaters and other teachers.
7. Absence of unsportsmanlike conduct on forensic trips.
8. Successful results of interschool competition.

9. Preparation of a complete and detailed report on forensic activities at the end of the school year.

DEVELOPING STUDENT INTEREST AND PARTICIPATION

There are numerous activities that may be used to attract student interest and participation in forensics.

1. Start the forensic year with a speech department open house or mixer.⁵ This is a good opportunity for providing entertaining speeches, refreshments, outlining the forensic program for the year, and filling out information sheets or interest cards. Invitations may be sent to those students who have expressed speech interest during freshman orientation, those recommended by high school and junior college teachers, and those who have participated the previous year.

2. Sponsor intramural contests—an excellent way to "get the ball rolling." This is especially true since all students may participate. The St. Petersburg Junior College intramural program includes persuasive speaking (original oratory), impromptu speaking, after-dinner speaking, oral interpretation, extemporaneous speaking, and debate. The best student response has been in persuasive speaking, oral interpretation, and debate. One way to stimulate interest is to hold an intramural speech contest among the clubs on the campus. This was found to be only fairly effective at St. Petersburg Junior College as far as numbers of participants were concerned, but it did serve to publicize the campus forensic program.

3. Participate in intercollegiate tournaments. They provide the incentive, drive, and testing ground for an effective forensic program. Many of the universities sponsor novice tournaments or junior divisions of regular tournaments where junior college students have a chance to compete with other beginning college debaters.

⁴ Arnold E. Melzer, *High School Forensics, an Integrated Program* (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1940), p. 117.

⁵ Gregg Phifer, "Organizing Forensic Programs" in David Potter (ed.), *Argumentation and Debate* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954), p. 354.

4. Stimulate enthusiasm by holding a tournament on the campus, for example, by sponsoring one for the junior colleges in the state. During the past year St. Petersburg Junior College sponsored the first Florida all-junior college tournament in debate, persuasive speaking, after-dinner speaking, and oral interpretation. Each year a different junior college will sponsor the tournament. It is hoped that this will provide incentive and encouragement to those junior colleges trying to start programs in forensics, and that this, in turn, will strengthen the total Florida junior college forensic program.

5. Recruit new speakers from beginning speech classes by presenting discussions, speeches, and debates before these classes and by requiring their attendance at campus speech contests.

6. Provide incentive by offering a regular college class or workshop in discussion and debate carrying college credit and transferable to the university.⁶

7. Establish a forensic honorary on the campus, such as Phi Rho Pi (National Honorary Forensic Society for Junior Colleges). This will give the program prestige and a definite and worthwhile goal toward which the student may work.

8. Present a banquet or awards assembly at the end of the academic year at which time accomplishments of the season may be reviewed and awards given.

9. Acquire a forensic room, if possible, perhaps painted and furnished as a project of the forensic honorary, where students can study, practice their speeches, hold discussions, and where debate materials can be displayed or stored. St. Petersburg's chapter of Phi Rho Pi completed such a project last year.

10. Publicize forensic activities in the college newspaper and annual. This rewards those students who participate faithfully in speech activities and attracts new speakers into the forensic program.

11. Remember that one of the best ways to build a forensic program is through the speakers themselves—their enthusiastic recommendations to their friends.

CO-ORDINATING THE HIGH SCHOOL, JUNIOR COLLEGE, AND UNIVERSITY FORENSIC PROGRAMS

In order to build a superior forensic training program, co-ordination and understanding must exist among the directors of high school, junior college, and university forensics. These steps are suggested:

1. Send brochures on the junior college speech program to high schools in the vicinity. The brochure on courses offered in television at St. Petersburg Junior College was especially effective in arousing student interest. This method could be used with the forensic program.

2. Present programs by junior college debaters and speakers before high school assemblies or speech classes.

3. Sponsor county or district high school speech contests on the junior college campus. Not only is this an effective means of service but also an excellent method of recruiting future junior college speakers and debaters.

4. Invite high school students to the junior college campus as observers or timekeepers for intercollegiate tournaments.

5. Write letters of invitation, from the junior college forensic director and president of the honorary society to the graduating high school seniors who have been recommended by high school speech teachers for participation in the junior college forensic program.⁷

6. Invite university students interning in high school speech to visit the junior college for better observation of the offerings and organization of its forensic program.

7. Send names and addresses of forensic honorary students, their particular speech experience, and achievements to the director of forensics at the various universities that the students plan to attend upon graduation from junior college.

⁶ Fred Short, "Problems of Starting a Junior College Speech and Drama Department," *Junior College Journal*, XXX (September, 1959), p. 36.

⁷ Phifer, *op. cit.*, p. 353.

8. Attend tournaments sponsored by the universities for novice college speakers and debaters. These tournaments offer the junior college student needed speech experience, incentive for excellence, and a better opportunity to decide which university he would like to attend. Furthermore, through these intercollegiate tournaments come a closer junior college-university forensic program unity and a clearer understanding of and acceptance by the university of junior college speech courses offered in discussion and debate.

9. Organize a county speech association. In Pinellas County the new Speech Association (only two years old) is of inestimable value in the understanding of the speech education program on the various levels—elementary school through university. It provides the needed opportunity for speech teachers and forensic directors to co-ordinate their programs, to receive new ideas and inspiration, and even to serve as judges at each other's contests and tournaments.

10. Become a member of the state, regional, and national speech associations and attend whenever possible. The state association could be of particular value to its members by setting up a forensics committee whose responsibility would be to "inform the association members regarding state debate forensics contests and festivals and make recommendations concerning an active participation at various educational levels."⁸

SUMMARY

These are some practical suggestions that the junior college director of forensics may find useful. Organizing a forensic program that will be of maximum value to those whom it reaches, whether speaker or listener, is not an easy task, but most activities that are worthwhile do offer a real challenge.

⁸ Article 8, Section 7, *Amended By-Laws of the Florida Speech Association*.

Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Anderson, Ronald A. *Government and Business* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1960. Pp. xvi + 681.

This book has been written and revised to meet the need for a text at the college level that would give a complete presentation of the problems involved. *Government and Business*, Second Edition, may be used for advanced study in a sequence of political science courses, economics courses, or business administration courses.

Apostle, H. G. *A Survey of Basic Mathematics*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1960. Pp. xv + 464.

This book has been prepared primarily to meet the mathematical needs of liberal arts students who do not plan to continue the study of mathematics. Little mathematical knowledge beyond the elementary arithmetical operations is presupposed on the part of the student. There is ample material for a year's course. Since many of the chapters are independent of each other, a continuous one-semester course can also be given, by judicious selection.

Berlo, David K. *The Process of Communication*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1960. Pp. xi + 318. \$4.25.

This highly interesting book provides for the first time a description of modern communication theory that will be useful as a foundation both for further

study and for the practice of communication in any field—journalism, advertising, radio and television, business, and public relations.

Bigelow, Gordon E. and David P. Harris. *The United States of America: Readings in English as a Second Language*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 286. \$2.50.

This book is designed chiefly for persons who have already acquired a basic knowledge of English and who need additional readings to continue their study of the language on an intermediate or advanced level. These readings have been divided into four sections. The first three are made up of expository essays dealing with the nation's historical backgrounds, with five of its important regions, and with a number of topics based upon the contemporary scene. The fourth section consists of a selection from American literature.

Cell, John W. *Analytic Geometry* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 330. \$4.95.

The third edition of *Analytic Geometry* features the same original and unhackneyed approach to the subject which made the previous editions so successful. A major revision, however, has been made in the problem material, and the quantity and quality of the problems included in this edition repre-

sent one of the major advantages of the work. Frequently only partial answers are given to problems so that the student is obliged to check his work carefully. In addition, for the solution of many of the problems more than one method is discussed—with the result that the student learns to choose between the various available methods and thus acquires mathematical maturity.

Close, Guy C., Jr. *Work Improvement*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. ix + 388.

The author incorporates the methodology and techniques used by business, industry and service organizations to reduce costs and increase productivity. In clear, direct fashion he explains the use of a systematic, organized method for solving cost problems in a practical manner. Suggestions are given on how to eliminate waste time, energy and material—and which tools are appropriate for the type of problem being studied.

Dubisch, Roy, Vernon E. Howes and Steven J. Bryant. *Intermediate Algebra*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 286. \$4.50.

This is a standard text which covers the traditional topics associated with a course in the subject. The authors have followed the usual order and presentation of topics—but have incorporated uncluttered, modern methods where feasible. Although they believe that understanding fundamental concepts is more important than the development of algebraic manipulative techniques, they have not neglected the latter.

Duckworth, Henry E. *Electricity and Magnetism*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960. Pp. xv + 424. \$8.00.

Electrostatics, current electricity, and electromagnetism are the fundamentals introduced in this concise, modern book. It is directed to students who have studied general physics and the calculus and are currently studying differential equations.

Esau, Katherine. *Anatomy of Seed Plants*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xvi + 376. \$6.95.

This book combines the clarity and conciseness which an introductory work should possess with the scholarly treatment of the subject that distinguished Professor Esau's *Plant Anatomy*. The development and functional viewpoint that characterized the earlier work is retained, and the selection of material fully takes into account the intensive research of the last decade in plant anatomy and related fields.

Hailstones, Thomas J. *Basic Economics*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1960. Pp. xi + 513.

This book is planned for a one-semester course at the college level. It is intended primarily for those students, such as preprofessional (engineering, medical, law), liberal arts, and other nonbusiness or noneconomics students, who will take only one course in economics. It is also suitable for an adult evening or extension course in economics.

Hicks, Hanne J. *Educational Supervision in Principle and Practice*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960. Pp. vii + 433. \$6.25.

Supervision is a process for stimulating

teacher growth to the end that better learning experiences are provided for children. In this volume, supervision is treated as a coordinated process affecting many phases of the educational program. The emphasis is upon the human relations aspect of supervision in carrying out the functions of the school program.

- Hunsinger, Marjorie. *Business Correspondence for Colleges*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. vi + 250.

Business Correspondence for Colleges is a text-workbook written for anyone interested in writing better business letters. It is designed primarily for use as a classroom text. But it may also serve effectively as a reference book for students, teachers, and office workers—in fact, for anyone who writes business letters. This book, therefore, should appeal especially to college-age students preparing to enter business, industry, or the professions, and to men and women already in these fields who want to develop greater skill in written communication.

- Judkins, Henry F. and Keener, Harry A. *Milk Production and Processing*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 452.

Milk Production and Processing has been designed to meet the requirements of an orientation course in dairying. The material contained in the book is broad enough to prepare the student for advanced work in dairy science, yet informative enough to be of use to the reader who never takes another dairy course.

- Key, Eugene George. *Elementary Engineering Mechanics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. \$5.50.

This book is designed specifically for two-year technician programs. All the essential elements of statics and dynamics and their application to engineering problems are fully described.

- Langford, Louise M. *Guidance of the Young Child*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. 349. \$6.25.

Guidance of the Young Child suggests practical guidance methods for adults who supervise the preschool child through various daily activities in the home and in group situations that are encountered in nursery school play groups, special education groups, and day-care centers. These techniques are based on research studies of growth patterns, specific patterns of growth and development, and behavioral responses at various maturational levels. The general areas of emotional, mental, physical and social development in the child are briefly described.

- McNaughton, Wayne L. *Introduction to Business Enterprise*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. x + 538.

As its title indicates, this is an introductory textbook in the field of business. It was written for students in the first or second year of college and is suitable for use in either one-semester or one-year elementary business courses as offered in business, engineering, economics, and liberal arts curricula.

- Martin, Phyllis C. and Elizabeth Lee Vincent. *Human Development*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960. Pp. v + 541. \$6.50.

This textbook offers an introduction to

- human biology. However, the basic anatomical and physiological aspects have been broadened through the inclusion of embryological and psychological material. This is the first of two books—the second dealing with psychological development—that have grown out of a general education course in a liberal arts college taught jointly by a psychologically-oriented biologist and a biologically-oriented psychologist.
- Mezirow, J. D. and Dorothea Berry. *The Literature of Liberal Adult Education*. New York: Scarecrow Press, Inc. Pp. x + 308. \$6.50.
- This book is designed to provide readers of the professional literature of adult education a comprehensive guide to journal articles, government publications, pamphlets and books published in certain major segments of the field since World War II in the United States, Great Britain and Canada.
- Moore, Robert Hamilton. *Elements of Composition*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii + 224. \$2.25.
- This text-workbook, although arranged in a more or less conventional way, can and should be more than just another conventional workbook. It is founded on the belief that the standard workbooks have demonstrated their limitations and that it is time for a change.
- Mowrer, O. Hobart. *Learning Theory and Behavior*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xii + 555. \$6.95.
- Within recent years, the psychology of learning has undergone movement of an unmistakable and meaningful kind. *Learning Theory and Behavior* describes this movement, shows how it came about, and points to some of its practical and scientific implications.
- Musselman, Vernon A. and J. Marshall Hanna. *Teaching Bookkeeping and Accounting*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. viii + 376.
- The book covers the entire accounting cycle and the full-range of teaching problems on a very practical, down-to-cases level. For beginners, the authors have singled out typical teaching difficulties and have presented specific remedies that really work. For the more experienced teacher the authors offer new ideas for course improvement and enrichment.
- Sarason, Seymour B., Kenneth S. Davidson, Frederick F. Lighthall, Richard R. Waite and Britton K. Ruebush. *Anxiety in Elementary School Children*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- The book represents six years of intensive research by the authors and includes, in addition to previously published studies, unpublished investigations which throw important light on the theory and methodology of personality measurement. The theoretical framework within which this research was carried out, as well as the anxiety scales which were developed, are presented for the first time in the book.
- Schaaf, William L. *Basic Concepts of Elementary Mathematics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. xvii + 386.
- This book affords the reader a genuine insight into the true nature of mathematics as an intellectual discipline. Rather than show how to perform mathematical operations, the author has chosen to show why these operations work; why multiplication, for instance, produces the answers it does—and why these answers are "correct." It

is a book with a distinctly "modern" flavor, equally useful to teachers, students, and laymen.

Stiles, Lindley J., A. S. Barr, Harl R. Douglass, and Hubert H. Mills. *Teacher Education in the United States*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960. Pp. viii + 512. \$6.75.

The purpose of this book is to help achieve excellence in teacher education. It is intended both for the student of the field and for all who are concerned in any way with the selection and preparation of teachers at either the collegiate or in-service stages. The authors have endeavored to present a concise, yet comprehensive, overview of the dimensions and pertinent developments in teacher education in the United States.

Strahler, Arthur N. *Physical Geography* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp. vii + 534.

A healthy resurgence of interest in physical geography as a basic, essential ingredient of the American geography curriculum has made itself felt in the near decade elapsing between publication of the first edition of *Physical Geography* and the present revision. Perhaps the largest group of students to profit by the treatment of physical geography as presented in this book will not go on to advanced studies of geography or any of the natural sciences. Instead, they will simply observe throughout their lives the phenomena they have studied here.

Weatherford, Willis D., Jr. (ed.). *The Goals of Higher Education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960. Pp. 122. \$3.50.

In the challenging circumstances of

today, many colleges are re-evaluating their academic aims. Designed to help particular colleges evaluate their programs, *The Goals of Higher Education* presents the views of major thinkers in a practical rather than a purely speculative context.

Weber, Christian O. *Basic Philosophies of Education*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. x + 333.

The practical aim of the book is to provide adequate material for a semester course on educational philosophies which are "classic" without having lost contemporary significance.

Williams, Griffith Wynne. *Psychology: A First Course*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1960. Pp. xi + 659. \$6.75.

This text is an attempt to provide the basic material for a one-semester introductory course in psychology. In its planning an effort has been made to meet the insistent questions of students regarding human behavior and to lead them to an appreciation of what a scientific approach has accomplished in furnishing answers.

Wynn, Richard. *Careers in Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. Pp. xi + 307. \$4.95.

Developed from the suggestions of students, counselors, and teachers, this book has been written primarily for young people considering a career in educational work. It should be helpful to college students already preparing for teaching and may be used as a textbook in an introductory exploratory course in education. Parents, teachers, counselors, librarians, Future Teachers of America, and Student NEA club sponsors will find it a handy reference.

From the Executive Director's Desk

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

JUNIOR COLLEGES continue to grow in enrollments and in the number of institutions. Apparently there is some positive relationship between population growth in the states and their interests in junior colleges. During the years 1950-57 Florida increased 50.6 per cent in civilian population; California, 30.1 per cent; Michigan, 20.9 per cent; and Texas, 18.5 per cent. These states are among the leaders in the junior college field. In these states and many others one of the greatest problems during the next 15 years will be the staffing of junior and community colleges with competent teachers and administrators.

TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

The *Junior College Directory* for 1958-1959 lists 20,003 full-time junior college teachers throughout the country and 13,393 part-time teachers with a full-time equivalent of 24,022. The 1955 *Directory* listed only 12,213 full-time and 11,211 part-time. Expansion of junior colleges in some parts of the country will affect the supply of teachers in other areas. For example, of the new teachers in California junior colleges in 1957-58 there were 15.8 per cent who came from out of state. One year later the out-of-state number had risen to 23.1 per cent. California has made consistent studies of college staff needs and of characteristics of the new teachers. Estimates have been

made of full-time equivalent new staff needs by 1970:¹

Junior Colleges	15,620
State Colleges	12,185
University	9,345
Private Colleges and Universities	5,294

California now reports 6,597 full-time equivalent junior college teachers. To find these teachers the administrators from the West Coast will be making more frequent trips to the East.

Dr. Mode L. Stone, Dean, School of Education, Florida State University, states that he estimates conservatively that there will be an annual need in Florida, at least for the next ten years, of 100 additional qualified community junior college teachers. In his words,

The master plan that was developed calls according to various degrees of priority for twenty-five junior colleges. I have no doubt that the realization of this plan will come before we are able to view it from the detachment and objectivity of our retirements. These junior colleges will come in our lifetime and because of this we will have to shoulder full responsibility for their establishment and staffing. The staffing of these colleges will be one of the most trying tasks that will face us. It will be challenging because we must plan for the staffing of these colleges during a

¹ A study of *Faculty Demand and Supply in California Higher Education, 1957-1970*, prepared for the Liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the California State Board of Education, Berkeley and Sacramento, 1958.

period when every kind of statistical factor will be working against us.²

COMPETITION FOR AVAILABLE SUPPLY

There is another interesting feature about the need to staff a growing number of junior colleges. The largest source of junior college teachers in many states has been the high school teaching field. In California in 1957-58, of the 457 new staff members who came from prior teaching positions, 271 or 59 per cent came from high schools. In 1958-59, of 496 new staff from prior teaching positions 225 came from high schools (45 per cent). Nationally the same situation is evident. The Research Division of the National Education Association reports that the largest group of new teachers, 31.1 per cent of the total, came directly from high school teaching positions the preceding year. Next were those who came directly from graduate school, 20.1 per cent of the total. However, it is not only the junior college that draws upon high school teachers; according to this same report, "The high school teaching corps continues to be an important source of new teachers. Teachers' colleges take almost one-third of their new teachers from this source, state colleges about 1 of every 5, and the smaller nonpublic colleges draw upon the high school staff at a more-than-average rate."³

There will be increasing competition for new teachers from this source. How

will junior colleges fare in the competition? There is a basic problem which must be reckoned with. According to Leland Medsker in his recent book, *The Junior College, Progress and Prospect*,⁴

... Needless to say, another immediate task is the procurement and training of teachers and counselors for the two-year college. This will not be accomplished easily, either quantitatively or qualitatively. One of the difficulties will be to find and prepare teachers whose image of themselves as staff members of a two-year college is in harmony with the distinctive purposes of this type of college rather than with some other type. Even the most adequate preparation of teachers is incomplete if their attitudes toward the junior college are incompatible with its purposes.

There is some evidence, as Medsker indicates at other points in his book, that many teachers in junior colleges tend to identify themselves with the four-year institutions and this might be an important factor in recruitment.

PROBLEMS IN STAFFING

Dr. James Reynolds, Editor of the *Junior College Journal*, described to a small group which met in New York two years ago under a grant from the Fund for Advancement of Education some of the problems he perceived in the staffing of junior colleges.

Junior colleges will experience the same staff problems as other institutions of higher education, and even more serious problems due to the two factors which are unique with them. Staff procurement among junior colleges, moreover, will differ from other colleges and universities because of certain basic differences in the nature of the junior college. The junior college concerns itself exclusively

² "Teachers for the Community Junior Colleges of Florida," *Proceedings of Sixth Annual Junior College Conference*, Tallahassee, Florida, November 22-23, 1957.

³ "Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1957-58 and 1958-59," Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

⁴ Leland L. Medsker, *The Junior College, Progress and Prospect* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960).

with teaching and service. This exclusion of the third function of higher education, research, implies a need for staff members whose preparation has not been devoted to the development of ability in the fields of research. In essence, this reduces materially the need for junior college instructors with the Ph.D. degree.

The seeming simplification of the problem of staff procurement faced by junior colleges as described in the preceding paragraph, however, is offset by the nature of the teaching responsibilities of junior college faculty members. Four aspects of these teaching responsibilities will illustrate the point:

- (1) the introductory and general educational nature of the academic program in junior colleges requires teachers who have depth of understanding in several subject matter fields as contrasted with the narrower specialization that characterizes the preparation of many teachers in four-year colleges;
- (2) the wider range of abilities, aptitudes, interests, and goals of junior college students requires greater proficiency by the faculty in the matter of instruction;
- (3) the continued, even increased, incidence of vocational education in junior colleges requires teachers for these classes, and teachers of academic classes who understand the importance of such non-academic programs; and
- (4) the increasing importance of counseling and guidance which will occur in junior colleges requires faculty members who can contribute effectively to such service.

Additionally, in contrast to serving educational needs derived from broad geographical areas, the junior college must give considerable attention to the educational needs of the locality which it serves. This stems from the fact that junior colleges are essentially local in their character. This condition implies a requirement that faculty members in junior colleges must be able to look at the immediate locality as a source for determining some of the educational services to be provided.

Dr. Ralph Tyler, Director of the Center for the Advanced Study of the Behavioral

Sciences, said about the same thing at a recent convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges. He concluded his remarks with a comment of relevance to this group:

Meeting the teaching obligation of the junior college is not easy. You have no adequate traditions to guide you. You cannot obtain staff members already fully prepared to discharge this responsibility.⁵

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION FOR JUNIOR COLLEGE TEACHING

It seems perfectly clear to me that steps are now in order to recognize junior college teaching as a profession and that there must be specific preparation of persons to teach in these institutions. Development now under way in several universities in the field of junior college administration ought to be accompanied with similar activities in teacher preparation.

The words of Professor Algo Henderson in regard to junior college administration have equal application to the teaching field.

The concept of the community junior college has changed radically during the half-century of its existence, and with this change has come the need of more imaginative and versatile leadership. What formerly was a job as the principal of a preparatory program has become a role as educational leader, as community leader and as the executive of a complex enterprise with many facets of management relating to personnel, program, plant, finance and public relations. It has become highly important that this educational leadership shall be exercised with the social vision and the professional understanding needed to implement the new concept.

⁵ Ralph W. Tyler, "The Teaching Obligation," *Junior College Journal*, XXV, 9.

Junior and community college administrators come from varied backgrounds; so do teachers. We assume that administrators should have given attention to junior college philosophy in some formal way. Is there any less need for such study by junior college teachers? The establishment of many new colleges as well as certain weaknesses and problems in the junior college identified through recent studies emphasizes need for university training programs for administrators. The need is surely as great for university programs directly concerned with the preparation and continuing improvement of junior college teachers.

Grants have now been made to ten universities by W. K. Kellogg Foundation to establish Junior College Leadership Programs. A sub-committee of the AAJC Commission on Administration is working with representatives of the university centers. However, very few universities are now conducting in a systematic and organized way programs for the preparation of junior college teachers which would in any way be similar to those under process of establishment in the field of administration. The University of California at Berkeley does have a junior college graduate internship program in teacher education which is being financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The program has been in operation only one year and the first report has just been published. It is well worth examining as a possible pattern for successful preparation of highly qualified men and women who might otherwise not enter the teaching profession.

Another approach is offered by the University of California at Santa Bar-

bara. A grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education has also made this experimental program possible. A rigorous training for a regular academic master's degree is combined with a specifically developed program covering all aspects of the requirements for the college teacher. Training is coupled with early selection of candidates for the degree (preferably at the beginning of the junior undergraduate year) and the courses offer practical opportunities in the latter stages to become acquainted with the techniques and routines of the teacher.

The program, beginning with the junior year, is a three-year course of study leading to a master's degree in a subject appropriate for college teaching. An additional summer session is advised for those who are obtaining a junior college credential at the same time as the master's degree.

During the graduate year students are hired as regular graduate teaching assistants. A portion of the duties of the teaching assistant is to attend a one-year coordinator seminar devoted to college and university organization, lecture preparation, the curriculum, and the obligations of a college professor. Graduate level courses are taken toward satisfaction of the master's degree, and a thesis and required examinations are completed. Students obtaining a junior college credential are enrolled in a student teaching course each semester, spending one semester in classroom presentation on the Santa Barbara Campus and another teaching at a junior college. Those students in the experiment who are qualified for further graduate work toward the Ph.D. degree will be given encouragement to proceed in this direction.

SUPERIOR TEACHING AS THE AIM

We have said many times that a basic obligation of the junior college is to be a superior teaching institution. Is it too much to hope that over the next several years reasons cited by students for attending junior colleges will be more than geographical proximity and financial accessibility, but that there shall be added this one—"I am going to a junior college because its primary aim is masterful classroom instruction."

Steps are in order to assure that junior colleges establish a reputation as institutions of higher education in which su-

perior teaching is the rule. The Commission on Instruction of AAJC is directing its energies to this end. The interest of universities with suitable graduate programs should be encouraged. The New England Board of Higher Education has taken steps in the right direction by its sponsorship of the conference on faculty personnel for the two-year college.

Finally, these measures will be ineffective unless at the same time there are institutional activities in the junior colleges themselves which will lead to more effective utilization of persons now actively teaching.

The Junior College



EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

Westbrook Junior College at Portland, Maine, has been awarded a grant of \$94,250 by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan, to aid in the establishment of the dental hygiene program. Edward Y. Blewett, president of the college, believes Westbrook to be a pioneer in this field since it will be the first residential junior college in the country offering this highly specialized program. Well-established programs are in operation in special schools and in divisions of universities. Westbrook is widely known for its work in the medical service area, and it is expected as a "pilot institution" to receive national attention from educators and specialists in dental auxiliary training. According to present plans the new program will be in operation by the fall of 1961.

As a residential college, Westbrook will be able to serve young women from all parts of Maine and from the rest of New England. At its June meeting the Maine Dental Society gave its endorsement to the establishment of the dental hygienist course in Maine and at that time offered its cooperation and support of such a pro-

gram at Westbrook Junior College. President Blewett's own interest in dental education has extended over a number of years. Before going to Maine he served as Chairman of the Advisory Commission on Dental Education, an agency of the New England Board of Higher Education. He recently completed service on the Advisory Council of the National Institute for Dental Research under appointment by the Surgeon General, United States Public Health Service. Currently he is a member of the Institute's Training Grants Committee.

Construction of a Training and Treatment Clinic to be erected on the campus has been authorized by the Board of Trustees of the college. The building will have an area of about 4,000 square feet. It will include a clinic room, offices, dental operator, X-ray facilities, dental laboratory and lockers. The ten-chair clinic will accommodate a maximum of 40 students, 20 in each class.

The Advisory Commission on Dental Education has recommended a minimum relationship of 25 hygienists per 100 active dentists by 1975. In 1955 there were in

New England approximately 13 hygienists per 100 dentists, but in Maine this ratio was 11 per 100.

* * *

Chicago City Junior College has published its final report of a three-year experiment in offering college courses for credit through open circuit television. The report describes the day to day operation of the complex experiment including administrative and instructional aspects. It gives statistics on enrollment and retention and on costs. It presents new conclusions derived from three years of experimentation and recommends lines of future experimentation. The Fund for the Advancement of Education supported the experiment with a grant of \$475,000 to the Chicago Board of Education. The Board of Education itself spent over \$600,000 for TV College, the popular name for the experiment.

In June, 1959, at the end of the three-year experiment, the Chicago Board of Education voted to continue TV College even without outside financial aid. By the spring of 1960, the Board of Education alone was underwriting the costs of TV College in presenting 51 periods of college instruction per week over station WTTW, channel 11.

At the close of the three years of experimentation, Dr. Benjamin C. Willis, General Superintendent of Schools, invited a panel of distinguished educators representing the areas of higher education, evaluation, accreditation, and research in educational broadcasting to review the work of TV College. This committee consisted of Dr. Frederick L. Hovde, President of Purdue University; Dr. Henry Chauncey, President, Educational Testing Service; Dr. Norman Burns, Sec-

retary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; and Dr. Wilbur Schramm, Director, Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University. In June, 1960, this panel summarized its findings for Dr. Willis. The panel's statements are so significant in regard to use by other junior colleges of educational TV that the major part of the panel's report follows.

The panel considered some of the more significant findings to be:

1. Courses at the junior college level can be taught effectively to a home audience by television. The results on this point were impressive and convincing. Indeed, in the few cases where there were significant differences between the performance of home TV students and classroom face-to-face students, the differences were more often in favor of the TV students than the others.

2. When junior college work is offered on television, it brings into the educational system a new group of students—an older group (median age in the 30's), most of them housewives who are strongly motivated to continue their education but have been kept from doing so by home and family duties. These students like and are grateful for television courses. Once started on higher education by television, they are likely to go on to a junior or senior college degree. Many of them are planning to become teachers. Obviously this is an important group to bring back into education.

3. It has been noted with interest, however, that offering a curriculum like this by television does not necessarily reduce the strain on junior college facilities. Because it builds an appetite in the community for higher education, and because many of the new students will take part of their work in the classroom, part by TV, it may well have the net effect of requiring more classroom space and more teacher time, although, to be sure, it spreads existing facilities to take care of more students.

4. The cost of educating credit students by television, in the numbers registered in Chicago, is a little more than the cost of educating them in the classroom. If the registration could be increased by a fraction, which may be as small as a third, the cost of TV teaching would compare favorably with the cost of classroom teaching. However, the utility of a junior college television curriculum should not be decided solely on the basis of comparative costs. The television courses are reaching a group of students most of whom would otherwise not take junior college work. It is serving a group of handicapped and otherwise restricted students. It is reaching a group of non-credit students which averages several times the size of the group studying for credit. It is also reaching a group of casual viewers who are registered neither for credit nor without credit—an "eavesdropping" audience about which little is known but which is estimated to range from five to 25,000 persons per program. In other words, it seems that offering junior college courses on television is a service to the city of Chicago far wider than the service to credit students.

5. Evidence of the high motivation of the TV students and the welcome given the TV courses is the fact that about 65 per cent of the television students finish their courses and take the final examinations. This completion rate is remarkable when compared with other forms of adult education for credit.

6. The experiment did not produce evidence to show that teen-age college students can be effectively taught exclusively by TV. It may be that these younger students need more direct contacts with the teacher. However, it is now clear that TV can be used as the main channel for teaching the more mature and more highly motivated students who are chiefly attracted to the home classes by television. Even in the case of these students, however, it is evident that completion and high quality work can be encouraged by mail-in assignments, trial tests, and the possibility of face-to-face conferences and telephone conference periods.

7. One of the more interesting things the project has demonstrated is that a highly competent junior college on TV can be

planned, organized, and presented by a metropolitan junior college system, using only its own resources. It would not be feasible to assume that every junior college could do what the Chicago junior colleges, backed by the resources of the public school system, have done, but many of them could certainly put a curriculum on TV. Those who plan to do so could profitably study the Chicago experience, for Chicago teachers and producers have done a prodigious job on what is, for television, a very low budget.

8. The project has demonstrated that an effective classroom teacher can learn to be an effective television teacher. But a good classroom teacher is not *per se* a good television teacher. Adapting the teaching situation to television requires preparation and creativity well beyond what is possible in the time usually allotted to classroom teaching. Practice, self-criticism, and much detailed planning are necessary before even an expert teacher can be effective on TV. Whether a so-called "television master-teacher" would have been more effective than these Chicago teachers is something the project did not study, but it is clear that the art of television teaching is not limited to a few great teacher-actors.

9. The usefulness of skillfully made study guides, work books, and other devices as aids and complements to television teaching has been impressive, and it is hoped that the time will come when teaching machines or similar devices can be used to guide the student's practice.

10. This experiment appears to have generated a healthy ferment throughout the junior college system in Chicago. The early fears of teachers that they might be superseded by a picture tube appear to have been absolved for the most part. In their place has come a new interest in stating clear course objectives, in using TV study guides in classrooms as well as at home, in making better examinations, on the pattern of the examinations for TV students, and in the experience of television teaching. Whereas at first it was difficult to secure volunteers for TV teaching, now the applications greatly exceed the openings. It appears that a junior college on tele-

vision has proved its usefulness in Chicago, and the service is being continued beyond the three experimental years.

New junior colleges are being established in many parts of the country. Newspaper comment is generally favorable and makes the point that these new institutions are meeting genuine needs.

From the St. Louis, Missouri, *Globe-Democrat*: "Normandy's (St. Louis) new junior college is already bulging at the seams with its first freshman class. It has 205 students registered and had to turn away at least that many more. C. E. Potter, principal of Normandy High School and administrator of the new two-year college, told the *Globe-Democrat*: 'I am confident we could have obtained 500 to 600 freshmen if we could have taken care of them. It shows the tremendous demand for higher education in St. Louis County has not been met.'"

The editorial continues with the comment that "Normandy's new junior college is a strong argument for state-supported junior colleges in Missouri's bigger cities. Certainly, this would make a college education far more available to youngsters now denied it because their families can't afford to send them away to school."

The Nyack, New York, *Journal-News*: "A freshman class of 230 members at the Rockland County Community College in Viola is a most encouraging second year start for a program which came into being on the prediction there would be no difficulty in finding enough students."

Port Angeles, Washington, *News*: "The district's new junior college got off to a flying start here Monday night when school directors of District No. 17 approved tentative working plans for the institution."

Fort Pierce, Florida, *News Tribune*: "We had occasion the other day to see some 200 reasons in support of the establishment and operation of a junior college in Fort Pierce to serve the four counties of Indian River, Okeechobee, Martin and St. Lucie. The reasons were in the form of students who had enrolled in Indian River Junior College and were holding their first assembly. No one who saw that group could possibly doubt the wisdom of such a move, nor fail to envision the possibilities of such an institution. Nor could there be any possible disillusionment as to the type of students a junior college would attract, nor as to the opportunities that it would afford them to prepare for the life ahead in this fast-moving world. We never saw a finer group of young people anywhere, nor a more earnest group of students than these charter enrollees in our junior college."

Fort Lauderdale, Florida, *News & Sun Sentinel*: "There won't be any upper-classmen around to heckle or haze the more than 600 freshmen when they begin classes Tuesday morning at the junior college of Broward County. They will be all alone, pioneers in the county's first local college program, and there will be no sophomore class at the two-year institution until next fall. In addition to the 600 plus who will report on Tuesday, there will be an undetermined number of evening students. Jerry Edson, winner of *The News'* annual \$1,500 newsboy scholarship, could have chosen any institution. He enrolled at the junior college because 'I think it will be a good school.' Jerry, like many of the other students, plans to complete his third and fourth college years elsewhere."

Many other new institutions are under

way this year. For example, Queensborough Community College in New York started classes with an enrollment of more than 300 full-time students. Suffolk Community College in the same state opened with an enrollment of more than 200 full-time students, and about 300 students were expected to enroll for evening courses.

* * *

A six-county area which comprises the Detroit southeastern metropolitan area has been the subject of study by an advisory council of 85 leaders from business, and industry, community planning agencies, education and labor. The study, which has dealt with an examination of the needs for community colleges, was under the guidance of Wayne State University and was endorsed by the County Associations of School Board Members, by the County Superintendents Associations, and by each of the six county superintendents of schools. The Detroit City Planning Commission and the Detroit Regional Planning Commission gave it their endorsement and the University of Michigan, Michigan State University, and the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction agreed to cooperate in conducting the study.

Dr. Gerald W. Boicourt, Director of Community College Services at Wayne State University, handled the earlier organizational efforts and was in October, 1958, named Study Director. Among the important conclusions of the one-year study were: 1. college enrollments from the six-county area may more than double by 1970; 2. additional community colleges are needed to accommodate this tidal wave of students and to provide specialized technical-vocational programs; 3.

five new community colleges should be established immediately and planning should be done for 15 more; 4. each county in the six-county area should be a community college district. The controlling board of each district should be the county board of education, and the method of electing such a board should be changed so that members are elected from the county at large; 5. community college financial support should come from state appropriations, tuition, county-wide taxes; 6. community colleges should continue to offer transfer programs, add more technical-vocational programs, and provide extensive student counseling services; 7. the state superintendent of public instruction should appoint a six-county community college development committee; 8. the county superintendents of schools should obtain enabling legislation and initiate action to present propositions regarding community colleges to the voters in each county.

* * *

Colby Junior College dedicated its new million-dollar Sawyer Fine Arts Center October 1. Dr. Eugene M. Austin, president, reported more than 1,000 parents, alumnae, friends and college and secondary school delegates were in attendance. Perry T. Rathbone, director of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and noted art juror, lecturer and author, delivered the dedicatory address. Sawyer Center, erected in the fall of 1959 at a cost of over \$1,000,000, is a prime example of what a small college can do in the field of fine arts. Named for Colby President Emeritus, Dr. H. Leslie Sawyer (1928-1955), the center houses the departments of music, theater, speech, graphic arts, and the dance. De-

signed by the architectural team of Hunter and Hunter, Hanover, New Hampshire, it was constructed with ex-

treme care so that it would be sympathetic to the Georgian colonial buildings which surround it.



Recent Writings...

JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

The United States of America: Readings in English as a Second Language, edited by George E. Bigelow and David P. Harris (286 pp.; Holt, Rinehart and Winston).

All who have studied a foreign language in school or college can testify to the dullness and patronizing air that permeate so many of the reading texts assigned to the course. Neither of these objections can apply to *The United States of America*, a paperback Holt-Rinehart anthology compiled and edited by George E. Bigelow of the University of Florida and David P. Harris of the American University. Designed for adults who are learning English but have already some preparation and skill in the language, this book offers material that would prove interesting and stimulating even to a native American reader. There are four sections. The first glances at this country's background and heritage in essays by such eminent historians as Merle Curti, Henry Bamford Parkes, and Ray A. Billington, supplemented by two Lincoln speeches and several American poems. The second section includes regional pieces—John Gunther's *Inside New England*, for example—and two poems appropriate to

the regional theme. Section three, entitled "The American way of Life," devotes its attention to such topics as the family, the position of women in America, the function of Congress and political parties, and the effects of the automobile revolution. Expert opinion on these varied topics is offered by Ruth Benedict, Margaret Meade, Frederick Lewis Allen, and other authorities. The final section—perhaps less successful than the others—presents a scattering of literary selections from Washington Irving to William Saroyan, ending with Faulkner's Nobel Prize Address. The stories and sketches are interesting enough, but of necessity they lack design or continuity. Each selection in the book is accompanied by word lists, vocabulary exercises, grammatical and comprehension exercises, and suggestions for writing. In short, *The United States of America* is a competent and interesting anthology, well deserving the attentions of those engaged in the difficult but highly rewarding task of teaching the intricacies of English to the adult foreigner.

EDMOND M. GAGEY
Bradford Junior College
Bradford, Massachusetts

The Goals in Higher Education, edited by Willis D. Weatherford, Jr., (122 pp.; Harvard University Press; \$3.50).

In this day of academic anxiety and self-division, one feels obligated to investigate every pursuit of great scholastic and social objectives. This compilation of six unnerving lectures relating to the goals of higher education fits that category. The book does not attempt to escape the force of history by announcing a vision of cornucopia spilling out extravagant generalizations. In contrast to many volumes on the market today, it is not a work by doctrinaire liberals for "lock-the-gates" conservatives indulging in unwarrantable partiality. The volume is a fit choice in this age of challenging opportunities in higher education.

The contributors are six serious and devoted men who discuss the views of major educationists and social thinkers of the day. Their lectures are not theoretically modulated to speculate concepts, but instead are practical in approaching the major issues in education. There is somber reality in their analysis, and the scholastic essentialist as well as the pragmatist will suddenly find himself bounding back to earth.

The six contributors are all men of high scholastic consequence, representing no one school of academic predilection. They are: Harold Taylor, former President of Sarah Lawrence College; Jacob Klein, Dean of St. John's College; Richard Sullivan, President of Reed College; Gordon Allport, Professor of Psychology, Harvard University; Brand Blanshard, Professor of Philosophy, Yale University; and, Arthur Morgan, President Emeritus, Antioch College.

For the reader to appreciate properly

the first two lectures on liberal education by Taylor and Klein, he should have some understanding of: (1) the classical philosophy which has as its chief aim mental development; and, (2) the presently dominant progressive philosophy which does not concentrate on transmitting cultural heritage to the new generation, except as it may concern present experience. Whereas the views expressed on these controversial topics are frequently associated with one or the other extreme philosophy, these two men "have not allowed themselves to be bound by the traditional categories of educational thought but have ranged freely in finding a new synthesis of their own." This is true of all the authors in this volume.

The third lecture is authored by Sullivan and entitled: "Who Should Go to College?" After a remarkable series of qualifications, he concludes that a quantitative expansion program, while desirable and important to the existence and growth of educational institutions, should be allied to a program of judicious qualitative selection. In short, the quest should be for excellence, not for numbers.

In the following lecture, author Allport has the almost impossible task of psychological analysis, when he undertakes to correlate the wide range of student abilities, motivations, and personalities with the capacities of the educational system to meet these varied factors and provide special opportunities for all. He concludes by saying that the paraphernalia of plans and props will not produce high competence—genius comes from within and the college can best mould itself to the varied needs of the students by providing a vision of excellence to hold before the mind of the individual student.

The fifth lecture, devoted to values, makes the reader feel a sense of mission. Author Blanshard, with weathergleam clearness and capacity for injecting varied examples ranging from history to trivia, coordinates the whole of his lecture to leave an unforgettable imprint of what he believes. He reveals in many ways the satisfaction and fulfillment that may be derived from having proper values.

By the time one concludes the final lecture by Dr. Morgan concerning the responsibility of colleges to prepare youth for community leadership, he is full of gratitude to these men for having given so generously of their thoughts and their time, to the end that he may better know himself in education.

LUIS M. MORTON, JR.
Odessa College
Odessa, Texas

The Faculty in College Counseling by Melvene D. Hardee and Orrin B. Powell. (391 pp.; McGraw-Hill; \$6.75).

According to Hardee this book was designed for the use of, first, general and academic administrators; second, directors and coordinators of programs of counseling; third, faculty members; fourth, professional guidance personnel; and fifth, professional personnel in the secondary schools.

The authors set the stage and define the role of the faculty member in the total program of counseling. In chapter IV, 20 selected programs of faculty advisement are briefly reviewed. Other chapters review in-service training, persisting problems, decision making, role of the non-counseling faculty member and staff employees, maintenance and use of central records, articulation of high school and

college counseling, faculty participation in orientation, the role of parents, student counselors, increased effectiveness through coordination of effort, and conclude the discussion with some attention to related research studies which have been completed, are in process, or should be done.

Each chapter begins with introductory remarks and is concluded with a brief summary, including an introduction to material to be covered in the next chapter. The authors have taken great care to see that the reader does not lose his way.

Relief from monotony is afforded by quotations, examples, and cases interspersed through the book. The authors lean heavily on other writers in this area, material is extensively footnoted, and a lengthy bibliography is afforded those who might wish to delve more thoroughly in the topics which are discussed. The appendix contains a collection of forms, form letters, summaries of seminars, conferences and the like. These materials would be useful to persons interested in exploring the possibilities of, or strengthening, a counseling program which utilizes faculty members.

The utilization of faculty in college counseling is not new. In the early history of colleges, faculty members performed as both teachers and counselors. Personnel services including guidance and counseling won a place on the college scene as a means to facilitate the educational process—relieve instructional personnel, handle necessary administrative detail, and make certain specialized services available to both faculty and students.

For a time there was too much dependence on the specialist in counseling and guidance at college level and too little

planned utilization of the faculty in counseling students. This book and other publications encouraging planned, coordinated programs utilizing the best faculty talent more extensively in college counseling possibly indicate an increased awareness that the faculty has and should always play an important role in college counseling, that instructional and guidance functions cannot be compartmental-

ized, that even the best programs are understaffed with professionally trained personnel workers, and that both instructional and guidance functions are performed with greater proficiency when closely coordinated.

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